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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this nine-chapter book is to (a) ferret out ideas and recommendations for revitalizing and reconceptualizing inservice education, and (b) replicate or adapt the Workshop on Reconceptualizing Inservice Education for which the first seven chapters were written. Chapter 1 examines the historical forces which have developed and now characterize inservice education, and examines future prospects. Chapter 2 describes Washington State's experience with process standards adopted in 1971 for the preparation of school professional personnel. Chapters 3-5 discuss concrete experiences with collaboration in Washington State and abstract considerations of inservice education. Chapter 6 questions traditional practices, functions, and terminology regarding certification and inservice education, and considers new roles for teacher organizations in a changing political context. Chapter 7 presents a discussion based on a preworkshop reading of chapters 5 and 6. Chapter 8 reports on the discussions of 87 selected people who read the first seven chapters, examined the purposes and assumptions stated earlier, and developed recommendations for rethinking inservice education. Chapter 9 is one person's reflections on prior chapters, observations from listening to the 87 people as they deliberated, and perceptions of necessary next steps. (Author/PB)

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Rethinking IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Roy A. Edelfelt
and
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Editors

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Introduction

This book has a twofold purpose. First, it can be read to ferret out ideas and recommendations for revitalizing and reconceptualizing in-service education. Second, it can be used to replicate or adapt the Workshop on Reconceptualizing In-Service Education for which the first seven chapters were written, and thus to extend the discussion of ideas about in-service education among the parties who must take action if in-service education is to be improved.

In-service education is a complex topic. This book does not purport to deal with all its dimensions. It does attempt to foster a better understanding of selected problems and issues, to uncover some new insights and challenging ideas, and to present some recommendations for local, state, and federal attention. The following definition, purposes, and assumptions were initially developed to guide the Workshop effort. They apply equally to this book.

DEFINITION

In-service education of teachers (or staff development, continuing education, professional development) is defined as *any professional development activity that a teacher undertakes singly or with other teachers after receiving her or his initial teaching certificate and after beginning professional practice.*

PURPOSES

1. To enhance understanding and capabilities by sharing experiences, knowledge, and ideas on in-service teacher education.
2. To identify problems and issues in in-service teacher education.
3. To reexamine and redefine the purposes of in-service teacher education.
4. To examine the respective roles and responsibilities (including financing) of the institutions, agencies, and organizations involved in in-service teacher education.
5. To identify promising new approaches to and models for in-service teacher education.
6. To examine the requirements for and the structure, organization, and governance of in-service teacher education.
7. To develop recommendations for the improvement of in-service teacher education.

ASSUMPTIONS

1. An effective in-service program for teachers and other school personnel is essential to improve the quality of school experiences for students.
2. In-service teacher education needs to be reconceptualized to be consistent with the changing role of teachers.
3. Reconceptualizing the in-service education of teachers is timely.
4. Teachers want and need in-service education.
5. Teacher organizations should exert initiative in reconceptualizing the in-service education of teachers.
6. A collaborative effort, including teacher organizations, colleges and universities, state departments of education, and school administrators, is essential to reconceptualize in-service teacher education.
7. In-service teacher education should be designed to further professionalize teaching.

To the editors of this volume, two assumptions are basic:

1. Teacher organizations should exert initiative in reconceptualizing in-service education (which they did in creating this book and the Workshop from which it is derived).
2. A collaborative effort is essential to reconceptualize in-service education (which is how the material presented here was dealt with—by including in deliberations selected educators from state departments of education, school administrations, higher education, and teacher organizations).

According to Webster, an assumption is a supposition, "that something is true"; it is also a proposition, "something offered for consideration." All of the above assumptions are both suppositions and propositions, basic starting points for rethinking in-service education.

Just a word about reconceptualizing in-service education. What is meant is that the whole idea of in-service education needs rethinking—the way it is organized and designed, the decision-making processes for determining it, and the kind of legal sanction it has. In other words, the larger scheme for in-service education needs reexamination. So do all its many segments. Charles Eames said it well in a recent Public Broadcasting System special: "It's impossible to think about any segment of a problem without thinking about its next larger part and its next smaller part." The task, then, is to become architects of in-service education. In the process, educators must be sure to keep perspective. It would be catastrophic if an ingenious plan were designed and a crucial factor neglected, be it large or small. For example, a plan might be devised that encompasses the essential elements of law, organization, conceptualization, design, and support, but that fails to recognize that teachers working under present assignments and loads do not have the energy to do any more.

The first seven chapters of this book represent an input of ideas. They are the work of 10 individuals with broad perspective and quality experience. In Chapter 1, Edelfelt, a teacher organization staff member, and Lawrence, a university professor, examine the historical forces operating to make in-service education what it is today and characterize its present status. The authors then look to the future, raising issues that must be confronted to harness potential energies for improving in-service education.

In Chapter 2, Jeffers, another teacher organization staff member, and McDaniels, an elected teacher-leader, recount Washington State's experience with process standards for the preparation of school professional personnel adopted in 1971. Unique in the nation, the standards give colleges and universities, school districts, and professional organizations an equal voice in the development of preparation programs and shared responsibility for implementation.

Chapters 3, 4, and 5 move the reader from concrete experience with collaboration in Washington State to more abstract considerations of the concept. Smith, a university professor, provides a good bridge, drawing on experience with teacher centers in England and the United States to characterize some of the political and practical problems of collaboration, as well as its promise for school program improvement. Writing from the perspective of a state education department official, Bottoms follows with a reasoned discussion of the in-service education responsibilities of four major agencies as required or implied by law, ethics, and professional standards. Orrange, a teacher turned consultant (to New York's Teacher Education Conference Board), and Van Ryn, also a state education department official, then offer a different treatment of essentially the same topic from their particular professional and state perspectives.

A new issue altogether, but not unrelated, is taken up by Vanderpool in Chapter 6. A staff member of the California Teachers Association, Vanderpool profoundly questions traditional practices, functions, and even terminology for certification and in-service education, and considers new roles for teacher organizations in a changing political context.

Chapter 7 presents some reflections inspired by a preworkshop reading of Chapters 5 and 6. Allen, a former assistant superintendent of public instruction, seasons commentary on the ideas in those two chapters with thoughts and conclusions born of dreaming about and living with collaboration for about 25 years.

Chapter 8 is a report on the thinking and discussions of 87 selected people who read the first seven chapters, who examined the purposes and assumptions stated earlier, and who then developed recommendations for rethinking in-service education. The deliberations and conclusions of these 87 people are included because a review by so many people of the ideas presented in a book is a rich resource and because much of their thinking probably reflects what any group examining in-service education might confront and weigh. A reading of Chapter 8 might indeed give readers a head start in grappling with problems and possible solutions.

Chapter 9 is one person's reflections on prior chapters, observations from listening to the 87 people as they deliberated, and perceptions of the necessary next steps.

1

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: THE STATE OF THE ART

Roy A. Edelfelt
Gordon Lawrence

A BRIEF HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION IN AMERICA

A history teacher we know used to justify the study of history this way: "You don't know where you are until you know where you've been and in what direction you are pointing." This is an analysis of where in-service education in America has been. The analysis presumes that in-service education takes its character from some fundamental concepts about schooling, learning and teaching, and human motivations and relationships. Below, we have identified 12 such concepts that have been historically important in shaping in-service education. We regard these concepts as no longer appropriate for guiding the future of in-service education. Yet because of their deep historical roots, they remain forces that leaders in in-service education must reckon with.

1. The primary role of the school is the giving and receiving of information.
2. Learning is the receiving of information to be stored and used later.
3. Curriculum and teaching are relatively fixed elements in the school.
4. The main business of teacher education is the quest for mastery of some relatively stable subject matters and methods of teaching.
5. In-service education is training that is designed, planned, and conducted for the teacher by persons in authority.
6. The central purpose of in-service education is the remediation of teachers' deficiencies in subject matter.
7. Leadership is "direction from above," and motivation is "direction from outside."
8. Supervision is diagnosis, prescription, modeling, inspection, and rating.
9. Teacher education in teacher preparation institutions and teacher education in schools are separate and discontinuous processes.
10. Intellectual leadership in goal setting and planning for in-service education appropriately comes from outside the school.
11. The teacher is a solo practitioner (rather than a group member involved in cooperative planning of common goals and related actions).
12. Prescriptive legislation is an appropriate vehicle for improving the quality of teaching standards.

Some of these concepts were operating at the beginning of American education or before; others emerged more recently. All are fading and being replaced, but they are fading at different rates and some are still held firmly

by a majority of teachers, teacher educators, administrators, and the public. Following is our analysis of how the historical development of in-service education relates to the 12 concepts:

1. The primary role of the school is the giving and receiving of information. Well into the nineteenth century, American public schools typically were in session for two or three months during the year, a few hours a day. By far the largest amount of a child's learning was gained through direct experience outside the school. The school dealt with a narrow range of information. Teachers had little or no professional training, and until the advent of the normal school, there was no place for them to get it. A community's main requirement for a new teacher, besides sound character, was that the person be able to read, write, and compute somewhat better than the students. When formal teacher education began later in the nineteenth century, the concept of teacher as information giver was firmly established in the pattern of teacher training, and a residue of that concept remains today.

2. Learning is the receiving of information to be stored and used later. How people learn was not a subject of serious study until the later nineteenth century. When literacy and moral preachments were the main foci of the curriculum, school processes clearly implied that school learning was simply a matter of receiving information to be acquired for use later. Naturally, that concept of learning for children became the adult pattern when the early teacher education programs were developed. The teacher institute and the normal school, which grew rapidly in the mid-nineteenth century, presented spectator models of learning. Lecture and recitation were the forms of instruction used to train teachers, and teachers were expected to use these forms with their students. Toward the close of the nineteenth century, when teachers began to criticize the institute and normal-school programs, the concern was largely for the content and not the methodology of instruction. New theories of learning and motivation came into teacher education in the late 1800's and early 1900's, but they were given as information rather than being practiced in teacher training.

Patterns of teacher education changed gradually in the first three decades of this century as teachers colleges evolved and practice teaching became a part of the preservice program. However, the spectator concept of learning was dominant in most university work, and lecture-discussion probably remains the most common form of instruction today in schools of education. Workshops, first called by that name in the 1930's, were intended to be problem-solving, action-oriented in-service work groups. One hardly needs to be reminded that a vast number of teachers still receive a lecture when they attend a workshop today.

3. Curriculum and teaching are relatively fixed elements in the school. R. W. Tyler explains the roots of this concept:

> In the midperiod of the nineteenth century, the idea that the curriculum and teaching procedures should be in continuous development was not commonly accepted. The technological and social changes in those days were proceeding less rapidly than now, and school learning was

considered desirable but not necessary for an individual's survival. Some pupils, it was thought, had little capacity for book learning and after a brief exposure would leave school to go to work. How to educate those who dropped out was not perceived as a meaningful question. Problems of this sort, now major concerns of current in-service education programs, serve to illustrate the contemporary outlook that teaching is a changing and developing task.[1]

The concept of teaching and curriculum as constant began to change when the Land Grant College Act in 1862, and the Morrill Act later, gave recognition to the needs of working-class and agrarian youth for access to higher education. Curriculum and teaching needed to change if they were to serve the new clients, and they did change slowly.

In this century, virtually every professional education association has sponsored the concept of continuous development; yet vestiges of the earlier concept remain. Most teacher educators today will say that undergraduates entering a teacher education program expect to teach what they were taught and the way they were taught as children.

4. The main business of teacher education is the quest for mastery of some relatively stable subject matters and methods of teaching. In the early days of teacher institutes and normal schools, the purpose of in-service education was to extend the teacher's knowledge of the subject that she or he was teaching. This usually meant emphasis on the "common branches"—arithmetic, spelling, geography, and history. Later, the training included principles of discipline and techniques of instruction. Principles of teaching were not considered to be as fixed or as certain as spelling or mathematical rules, but the tendency has remained strong for teachers to seek security in a quest for *the* teaching techniques.

5. In-service education is training that is designed, planned, and conducted for the teacher by persons in authority. In a careful historical review of in-service education, H. G. Richey drew this conclusion:

> During the nineteenth century, in-service programs of teacher-training . . . reflected, above all else, the prevailing and partially valid assumption that the immaturity, meager educational equipment, and inexperience of the teacher rendered him unable to analyze or criticize his own teaching, or, unless given direction, to improve it.[2]

Of course, there have always been teachers capable of analyzing and directing their own professional improvement. The prevailing view, then and now, has been that such teachers do not need in-service education. Even in the last 40 years, little has happened to alter the concept that "authorities" rather than teachers should determine the purposes, content, and methods of in-service programs. In the 1930's, the Eight-Year Study gave visibility and impetus to cooperative curriculum development and problem solving as important instruments of continuing education. Yet change has been slow, and teacher involvement in the planning and management of in-service education remains limited today.

6. The central purpose of in-service education is the remediation of

teachers' deficiencies in subject matter. In 1890, few teachers had a high school education. By 1930, about three-fourths of the teachers had attended college for two or more years. Dramatic as this change seems, its impact on the purposes and content of in-service education has been slow in coming. As Richey noted, ". . . improvement was uneven as among states and types of communities, and the needs of the poorer teachers tended to set the pattern of in-service education for all."[3] The child-study movement and the progressive education movement caused the emphasis of in-service education to shift away somewhat from remediation of subject-matter deficiencies. However, the emphasis shifted back during the teacher shortage following World War II and again during the Sputnik era. Recent emphasis on the school's responsibility for meeting the needs of all students has again broadened the content of in-service education. Remediation as a general theme has now almost been replaced by single-purpose problem solving—for example, programs focused on classroom management, techniques of individualization, or values clarification. The profession is clearly shifting toward the concept of in-service education as continuous professional development, but it is not yet firmly established.

7. Leadership is "direction from above," and motivation is "direction from outside." In the early days, the school board was, in effect, a church board, to which the teacher looked for any decision making that was needed beyond the guidance of church policy. When the school became secular, the teacher still looked to the board and superintendent for decisions regarding curriculum and instruction—not because of their religious authority, but because of their superior knowledge and cultural status. Richey describes it this way:

> Teachers, long conditioned to prescription and direction, were little disposed to be critical of the direction of those in whom legal authority resided. At least, there would be little questioning of such authority until large numbers of teachers came to realize that it was not always based on competence and understanding superior to their own.[4]

It was not until the 1940's that studies of group dynamics showed clearly the many leadership roles that exist in groups. That teachers' professional growth depended to some extent on the opportunity for them to play some of those roles was an idea that emerged soon after. Ideas about motivation of teachers also began to change at that point. John Dewey's insights about human motivations had not been well understood or applied in the design of teacher education. Teacher institutes, the main form of in-service education in the 1800's, were regarded as a waste of time by teachers at the end of the century. Yet 20 years later, institute attendance was compulsory in over half the states, and institutes were still regarded by school authorities as an appropriate way to motivate the professional development of teachers.[5] It seems likely today that most teachers regard in-service education as something they are obliged to do. The new knowledge about motivation has not yet been widely translated into programs of cooperative development to balance, if not to replace, compulsory in-service education.

8. Supervision is diagnosis, prescription, modeling, inspection, and

rating. This concept needs little amplification. Its historical roots have been traced above. Well into the 1930's, "the supervisory staff was considered the authority that, within limits prescribed by law, should determine the curriculum, textbooks, standards, and methods of instruction. It judged the extent to which the teacher succeeded in teaching prescribed materials by prescribed methods and rated teachers accordingly."[8] When the emphasis in in-service education began to shift away from correcting teachers' deficiencies to promoting professional growth, a new relationship between supervisor and teacher was possible. Nonetheless, supervisors still find it difficult to reconceptualize their jobs and develop new skills of helping, consulting, assisting, and supporting.

9. Teacher education in teacher preparation institutions and teacher education in schools are separate and discontinuous processes. When teacher education developed in the United States, the vast majority of teachers taught in small school districts that were widely separated from one another and operated on very small budgets. Thus, teachers traveled from their communities to some other site for in-service education, and a pattern quickly developed: Institutions other than the school or school district became responsible for the basic preparation of teachers, and the supervisory staff of the school district became responsible for fine tuning of teachers' skills on the job. With a few notable exceptions in large cities and recently in the Northwest, school districts and teacher preparation institutions have not developed collaborative relationships for the comprehensive planning of the professional development of teachers.

10. Intellectual leadership in goal setting and planning for in-service education appropriately comes from outside the school. Most textbooks, teacher guides, published curriculums, and published in-service education materials used in schools have been written by people other than school personnel. Moreover, the research on in-service education has been conducted largely by university personnel, not school people. The pattern seems to have begun in the early days of American schools: The teacher and other school personnel were expected to stay close to the daily business of operating the schools, while others stood back to get a broad perspective on educational goals and approaches to improving the profession. In the past two decades, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) and the National Education Association (NEA) have had some success in changing that pattern, but it remains a strong one.

11. The teacher is a solo practitioner (rather than a group member involved in cooperative planning of common goals and related actions). This concept has its roots in the earliest patterns of American education—the colonial dame school and the one-room school. The pattern of the individual working alone grew so strong that it remained after schools in cities came to have many teachers on their staffs. Since the 1930's, the value of cooperative planning as a form of in-service education has been recognized by educational leaders, but a pattern as old as this one is slow to change.

12. Prescriptive legislation is an appropriate vehicle for improving the quality of teaching standards. After World War I, heavy reliance was

placed on legislated standards to improve the quality of teachers. The push to make the bachelor's degree (including professional training and student teaching) the minimum standard for beginning teachers was strongly supported in state legislatures by teacher organizations and other professional groups. Legislators learned from the successful experience of passing laws to improve general standards: In the 1950's and 1960's, they enacted more detailed laws to raise standards. However, they also began to meet with resistance from teacher organizations. Unfortunately, much of the legislation since 1950 has caused teachers merely to accumulate college courses, many of which are not relevant to their performance as teachers. The practice of prescriptive legislation continues today with state laws on accountability, regulations for teacher certification, and programs of state assessment (all of which have some relevance for in-service education). The approach of improvement by edict has not always worked, particularly when the legislative decree has not been feasible to implement or when educators have been able to avoid compliance. Nevertheless, prescriptive legislation will probably persist unless legislators become convinced that professional tasks are best delegated to educators within a general mandate that recognizes the rights and responsibilities of both professionals and the public.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

In-service teacher education today bears a close resemblance to the concepts that have shaped it historically. It is usually required of teachers. Content and approach are prescribed by universities and school districts. Course credits are mandated by state department regulations and school district policies. Although intentions have usually been good, too often programs are low level, piecemeal, and patchwork. Teachers achieve advanced degrees, credits for salary increments, and higher levels of certification, but the effort yields too little in the improvement of teaching or school program. In fact, in-service education does not often deal directly with helping teachers improve their skills in instruction or become more adept at planning and organizing curriculum. In school district programs, the focus is on introducing new curriculums, beefing up existing programs, or following new fads and trends, typically at the supervisor's discretion. In formal graduate work, study is largely divorced from the specifics of the teacher's job. In-service education takes place on the teacher's own time and frequently at her or his expense. It is seldom based on teacher need and is often conducted in a manner that negates the principles of good teaching and learning.

The deplorable situation today exists probably not so much by design as by neglect. For the last six decades, teacher educators have been preoccupied with improving first preservice teacher education and then graduate training for teachers of teachers. When the degree requirement for beginning teachers was still but a dream, four years of preparation seemed reasonable to prepare a finished product. The drive to bring legitimacy to teacher education in the university may also have diverted attention from programs for teachers in service.

Additionally, the transient nature of teaching as a profession has mitigated against in-service education efforts, particularly in the school district. A look at a district faculty after 5 or 10 years of in-service efforts often reveals that a very large percentage of the teachers who were served are gone. Thus, the effects of much time, effort, and money are dissipated.

From 1960 until recently, the federal government spent millions of dollars on in-service education, most of the funds going into National Defense Education Act and National Science Foundation institutes. Unfortunately, the institute effort suffered a fate similar to, if not worse than, university and school district programs. The purpose was usually to improve a teacher's background in a subject or to orient a teacher to a newly developed curriculum. In either case, the institute usually plucked a single teacher out of a school district for a summer, a semester, or a year and laid on a course of study in the tradition of the university, where most of the institutes took place. Institutes often helped a teacher become more competent in a teaching field, and some attention was given to pedagogy, particularly in the curriculum institutes. But alas, there was little payoff back home in terms of improved school program. One teacher alone could not change a school, even when she or he was promoted to coordinator in a particular field. Promotion, of course, took the teacher out of teaching in the usual sense. Thus, the upgrading probably accrued more to supervisory personnel than to teachers.

There have been many attempts to improve in-service education, but few successes. In 1965, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the NEA conducted a nationwide survey to identify promising practices in in-service education. Over 300 program descriptions were collected and reviewed. The product was a publication describing some carefully selected programs that seemed to have merit. However, the title of the publication, which was originally to have been *Promising Practices in Inservice Education*, was changed to *Current Practices in Inservice Education*.[7] The change in title revealed the judgment of those conducting the survey and adds to the evidence that in-service program development has been inadequate.

Recent reviews of research on in-service education[8,9] highlight other weaknesses by showing what has been emphasized and what has been neglected. Receiving substantial attention have been methods for teaching basic subjects, remediation of teachers' knowledge, introductions to new curriculums, problems of classroom management, cultural attitudes of teachers, and the humanizing of education.

Neglected have been a dozen other areas. Less than one-fifth of the 97 reports reviewed by Lawrence et al concerned any kind of comprehensive in-service planning or general school-program development. Only slightly more than one-fifth of the programs involved teachers in selecting goals and activities for their own professional growth. Programs that sponsored teacher initiation and self-direction were almost nonexistent, and there were no reports of research involving a teacher organization or a teacher center. "Also missing [was] evidence of any of the human sciences other than psychology having an influence on the substance of inservice education. Two

of the programs reviewed put teachers into contact with the community. None of the reports mentioned parents being involved with an inservice program."[10]

"Most of the programs [focused] on the teacher as an individual practitioner. Even though the in-service activity usually [involved] a group of teachers, the implicit expectation [was] 'study together, but practice what you learn independently.' "[11] Individualization was frequently a focus of the programs, but it meant adjustments in the pace and sequence of training, not accommodation to the teacher's learning style, personality traits, or teaching style.

The research reports imply that most school systems give relatively low priority to in-service programs. "The largest number [of programs did] not take place during the regular school day and [were] not a part of a teaching assignment."[12] The schools also appear to give low priority to research on in-service education. Even among large school districts, very few conduct careful evaluations of in-service education, and nearly all studies reviewed were conducted by persons outside the school systems.

In sum, in-service education has been the weakest and most haphazard component of teacher education. Even the most charitable would have to admit that it has not been nearly as effective as it might have been, considering the expenditure of time, effort, and resources. However, to say that in-service education has been inadequate is not to say that teachers can or want to do without it. During the 1974–75 school year, NEA conducted assessments of teacher needs in instruction and professional development in 18 local school districts that were representative of the country in terms of size, geographical location, types of clients served, and urban/suburban/rural setting. Inadequacy of or interest in in-service education was one of three categories of concern to surface in every single district. The positive conclusion to be drawn from this information is that teachers want quality in-service education; they also recognize a significant discrepancy between what exists and what they would like.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Piecemeal, patchwork, haphazard, and ineffective are the harsh words we have used thus far in pressing our indictment of in-service education. The words suggest, but do not clearly state, the fundamental problem: There has never been a broad scheme of in-service education with a clear concept of purpose, appropriate undergirding of policy, legitimacy in commitment, and fixed responsibility for attaining agreed-upon goals. It is with a broad scheme that we now want to deal; lesser schemes will be too incomplete to work. The broad scheme must include at least four frameworks: conceptual, legal—organizational, design, and support (money, etc.); and all must be seen in context.

The missing dimensions of in-service education are well illustrated by contrasting in-service education with preservice teacher education. Preservice teacher education has an established framework. The responsibility for it is fixed. Institutions of higher education plan, operate, and control it.

There are state-level regulations to guide it, and state and federal funds to finance it. Mechanisms for monitoring it, such as state approval and national accreditation, are established and operating. Further, and perhaps most important, undergraduate preparation is based (if only tacitly) on holistic concepts of the product. Different versions of such holistic concepts are implicit in the standards of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC). In competency-based programs, they are explicit.

By contrast, neither the college or university nor the school district has embraced in-service education as a basic commitment. State-approval programs for in-service education are weak and sketchy or nonexistent. National accreditation of in-service education is largely restricted to programs in colleges and universities, and even there, it is skimpy and partial, certainly the least effective part of NCATE accreditation. Teachers must arrive at their own synthesis of university and school district offerings, which typically deal with just a segment of teacher competence, often unrelated to a whole. In short, in-service education programs neither extend preservice frameworks nor have frameworks of their own, except in rare instances.

Building a Conceptual Framework

Obviously, a conceptual framework for in-service education should build on preservice models, and both preservice and in-service frameworks should be based on concepts of what a teacher should be. The intellectual exercise of logically extending preservice into in-service education is easier than making the extension operational. However, building an in-service extension even in theory may be a formidable task because opinions on an acceptable concept of *teacher* will no doubt vary widely. For example, the primary focus in preservice preparation is on training the teacher in the role of teacher of students. Less attention is given to other roles that a teacher must assume, such as individual professional, liaison with parents, and member of the teaching profession; and almost no attention is given to several roles that a teacher must perform in professional practice—for example, member of a faculty, member of a staff hierarchy, colleague of other professional educators (college and university personnel, state department officials, and other professionals working in a variety of nonschool but school-related capacities), and member of a teacher organization.[13] Some of these roles are particularly appropriate to in-service education because they only have relevance when actual practice in teaching is undertaken.

The identification of roles that teachers must assume in teaching—those suggested above or other schemes—can serve as a basic holistic concept and framework for in-service education, most desirably as an extension of preservice teacher education. If adequacy in performing these roles becomes the goal of in-service education, the goal will then have an operational definition. That achievement will be helpful in applying standards in states where regular or standard certificates (or other post-baccalaureate requirements) are required subsequent to the initial teaching license. On the career-long continuum of in-service education, a conceptual framework will

provide direction and a context for individuals and groups of practitioners to shape continuing staff development.

Developing Legal–Organizational and Support Frameworks

As suggested, finding agreement on a conceptual framework may be difficult. Making an agreed-upon scheme operational will be more so. Conditions and circumstances in a particular situation will influence the degree to which teachers can perform any set of roles effectively. Dealing with conditions and circumstances requires attending to a wide variety of factors at the local level: the quality of leadership, the adequacy of resources, the appropriateness of teacher assignment, the time available to undertake various roles, the adequacy of decision-making procedures, and the support of clients, both financial and psychological. At the state level, a supporting framework of regulations and policies, financial support, and mechanisms of governance seem minimum essentials. It will be critical to assure that the legal–organizational and support frameworks at the state level enable educators themselves to develop viable in-service programs. Put another way, this means moving away from the prescriptive legislation discussed earlier.

Defining local and state conditions and circumstances that make effective in-service programs possible is largely yet to be done. The supporting legal–organizational framework and provision for adequate budgetary support must be devised to mesh with the aforementioned conceptual framework for in-service teacher education. And all that requires agreeing on and fixing roles and responsibilities of the agencies and individuals involved.

Constructing a Design Framework—Cues from Research

In a recent comprehensive review of research on in-service education by Lawrence et al, a number of clear and strong patterns of effectiveness emerged. The 97 studies that were analyzed showed that differences in materials, procedures, designs, and settings for in-service education are indeed associated with differences in effectiveness. Some of the more important findings were these:[14]

1. School-based in-service programs concerned with complex teacher behaviors tend to have greater success in accomplishing their objectives than do college-based programs dealing with complex behaviors. (p. 8)
2. "Teacher attitudes are more likely to be influenced in school-based than in college-based inservice programs." (p. 9)
3. "School-based programs in which teachers participate as helpers to each other and planners of inservice activities tend to have greater success in accomplishing their objectives than do programs which are conducted by college or other outside personnel without the assistance of teachers." (p. 11)
4. "School-based inservice programs that emphasize self-instruction by teachers have a strong record of effectiveness . . . ." (p. 12)
5. "Inservice education programs that have differentiated training experiences for different teachers (that is, 'individualized') are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs that have common activities for all participants." (p. 14)

6. "Inservice education programs that place the teacher in [an] active role (constructing and generating materials, ideas and behavior) are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs that place the teacher in a receptive role (accepting ideas and behavior prescriptions not of his or her own making)." (p. 14)
7. "Inservice education programs that emphasize demonstrations, supervised trials and feedback are more likely to accomplish their goals than are programs in which the teachers are expected to store up ideas and behavior prescriptions for a future time." (p. 14)
8. "Inservice education programs in which teachers share and provide mutual assistance to each other are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs in which each teacher does separate work." (p. 15)
9. "Teachers are more likely to benefit from inservice education activities that are linked to a general effort of the school than they are from 'single-shot' programs that are not part of a general staff development plan." (p. 15)
10. "Teachers are more likely to benefit from inservice programs in which they can choose goals and activities for themselves, as contrasted with programs in which the goals and activities are preplanned." (p. 15)
11. "Self-initiated and self-directed training activities are seldom used in inservice education programs, but this pattern is associated with successful accomplishment of program goals." (p. 15)

The Context for Decision Making

Cognizance of past experiences, awareness of present faults, and knowledge of research findings provide perspective. They help us avoid known pitfalls and assist us in exploring what might be. It is also productive to examine some of the existing economic, political, social, and educational circumstances that we face at this moment in history—to both understand available options and consider strategies for improvement.

Certainly, the economic situation is dismal, and the political mood hardly seems responsive to dramatic, high-risk experiments in any of the human services, let alone education. On the other hand, the social consciousness of the American public has been profoundly shocked by the rebellion of youth, the violence over Vietnam and civil rights, and, more recently, energy shortages, international crises, inflation, and unemployment. The trials of the 1960's and early 1970's are further complicated by the frustration of learning how to use and control technology rather than becoming its victim. The habit of plenty is being broken by the reality of scarcity, and the custom of free, unbridled enterprise is being reconsidered by political leaders and scholars in favor of social planning and deliberations about needed social policy. It has become clear that some traditional values and life-styles must change.

In this context, educational programs, too, are being challenged and indicted. Schools just are not satisfactory for educating a populace to deal with its problems. Hence, a case can be made that education must change. And perhaps the most direct way (and the most compelling argument for public support) to manage such an enormous task is to concentrate on

promoting improvement of the people who operate the nation's schools—teachers, supervisors, administrators, et al.

To initiate change, leaders in education must make decisions about some critical issues in the existing circumstances. They must also recognize that the contemporary context is as important a consideration as the reasonableness of a particular proposal. That is, choices should be both justifiable in content and attuned to the public mood.

Major Issues To Be Resolved

Among the issues on which decisions must be made to influence the future of in-service education are the following: teacher supply and demand; the relationship of preservice and in-service teacher education; the role of higher education; the role of teachers and teacher organizations; self-governance for the teaching profession; the adequacy of courses, credits, credentials, etc.; and the role and purpose of in-service education. These issues are sharpened by raising some questions needing discussion on the way to decisions:

Teacher Supply and Demand. Can an effective case be made for more school staff to both individualize instruction and provide time in a teaching load for in-service education, or will teacher supply continue to be computed on the basis of existing school staffing patterns? Will legislators be skeptical of additional financing for preservice education and insist that added resources be allocated to in-service education?

The Relationship of Preservice and In-Service Education. Can preservice teacher education be developed much further without attention to a preservice–in-service continuum? Should preservice students and in-service teachers be educated together, or should their programs continue to be largely separate? Should new arrangements be established to involve all interested parties (including teacher organizations) in preservice and in-service education, or will preservice teacher education continue to be the responsibility of the college and university, and in-service education, the province of the school district?

The Role of Higher Education. Do higher education institutions have enrollment problems, heightened social consciousness, or need for political support sufficient to alter their policies and approaches to in-service education, or will academic tradition and the desire of colleges of education to be respectable in the community of scholars be strong enough to maintain programs and purposes as they are? Will professional schools of education become more independent and autonomous, more field centered, and more concerned with school improvement, or are they locked into a system and committed to a highly abstract pursuit of knowledge?

The Role of Teachers and Teacher Organizations. Will teachers and teacher organizations be treated as partners in the educational enterprise, or will they continue to be regarded deferentially and benevolently by administrators and college staff? Will teacher organizations control and conduct in-service education, or will they strongly influence it and expect school districts and universities to sponsor and pay for it? Will teacher organization concerns—e.g., collective bargaining, organizational leadership,

teacher rights, union law—become recognized fare in higher education, or will teacher organizations need to offer their own training in these areas? Will teacher organizations give in-service education a higher priority in their programs and budgets, or will professional development continue to play second or third fiddle to other organizational goals?

Self-Governance for the Teaching Profession. Will standards and licensure commissions (with decision-making powers) be established by law in more states, or will state departments of education continue to control standards of preparation and the civil courts remain the forum for adjudication of malpractice? Will self-governance be expanded to operate also at substate levels in the manner of county professional boards in other professions, or will professional governance remain largely a mechanism for policy and judgments important enough to reach the state level? Will standards and licensure commissions give attention to in-service education, or will they deal mainly with preservice training and in-service practice?

The Adequacy of Courses, Credits, Credentials, Etc. Is it possible to move beyond course counting and certificate granting in in-service education, or are such accumulations and citations essential to reward the practitioner, on the one hand, and protect her or him from the possibility of subjective biases and invasions of privacy, on the other hand? Can attention to competence replace the accumulation of credits, or is competence too intangible, too much a matter of opinion? Can competency-based in-service teacher education be voluntary for those already practicing and be imposed on all new practitioners? Should there be a clear distinction between the level of professional competence to be attained at some point in preparation—the fifth year (in service) or the master's degree—and competence as a continuous career-long goal?

The Role and Purpose of In-Service Education. Are citizens coming to realize that in-service education is the most direct way to improve school programs, or do they still believe that preservice training does the job and teachers themselves must keep up? Are educators beginning to subscribe to in-service education as a school–faculty enterprise to improve the program of a school, or is there continued support for individual and often isolated training of teachers in courses and workshops? Will educators be prepared to offer evidence of the effectiveness of in-service education, or will it remain a largely unevaluated area, operating on blind faith that "the more you have, the better you are"?

MARSHALLING FORCES FOR CHANGE

Significant improvement in in-service education will come from the coinciding of interests among those who have a stake in it. Sometimes, of course, people's interests and priorities coincide naturally, without deliberate effort at dialogue and accommodation. Quite possibly, that coincidence would never occur with a matter so complex as in-service education unless there were deliberate interventions to promote it. What strategy or strategies, then, might be undertaken to intervene to align the interests of teachers, school systems, colleges of education, state departments of education, and other involved parties?

At a very abstract level of analysis, we see these steps in a general strategy: consciousness-raising; identification of institutional and personal interests, including the hidden agenda as well as the obvious; dialogue among all parties about common interests and priorities; consensus on the specific areas of collaboration to be tried and specific roles to be assigned; establishment of a support system; and trial efforts with built-in adjustment procedures.

Given a core of people committed to significant change in in-service education, how do they begin to marshall forces for change? Perhaps by answering some questions, including the following:

1. Within my agency, what motives or interests support the status quo? What motives or interests support change?
2. Which of those motives or interests can be influenced constructively by external forces such as certification and accreditation standards, state and federal policies and funds, professional association efforts, etc.?
3. On whose initiative can collaborative planning begin in each of the areas needing change?
4. What persons or agencies now hold initiatives for change?
5. In what sequence might the initiatives be set in motion?
6. What principles need to be enunciated to ensure parity?
7. What approaches to collective leadership need to be devised?
8. How can roles be differentiated to capitalize on the best expertise and talents while maintaining a collaborative, democratic approach?
9. What safeguards need to be observed to protect the fundamental interests of the individuals and agencies involved?

The answers to these questions may be a good starting point for thought and discussion by persons interested in reconceptualizing in-service education.

FOOTNOTES

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10. *Ibid.*, p. 18.
11. Edelfelt, R. A., *op. cit.*, p. 2.
12. *Ibid.*, p. 2.
13. Teacher roles are explored in a monograph (as yet without title) being written by R. A. Edelfelt.
14. Lawrence, G., and others, *op. cit.*

2

BUILDING A PRESERVICE-IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION CONTINUUM: THE WASHINGTON EXPERIENCE

Stanley H. Jeffers*
Dolores McDaniels*

In the early 1960's, a new concept for the training and certification of students in teacher education and teachers in service was proposed by a committee of 30 Washington State educators. By early 1968, a third draft of the proposal had been shared with various educational groups in Washington for discussion and reaction. Later in 1968, a fourth draft was distributed to all educators in the state to give them an opportunity to react and make further suggestions for change. The "mind-blowing" idea of the new proposal was that colleges and universities, school districts, and professional organizations would have an *equal voice*—parity—in development of teacher-training programs and that they would *share responsibilities* for implementation of these programs.

When the fourth draft of the proposal first came to the attention of many Washington Education Association (WEA) members, they asked, "Why involve the professional organization? Why should we use our dues money, time, and staff on the problems of preservice and in-service teacher education?" Several years of discussion and reflection brought the beginnings of an understanding. First, a major goal of the professional organization is to improve education. Involvement in teacher education, both preservice and in-service, provides an important means to achieve that goal. Second, the primary emphasis of the schools used to be on what was taught, not who was teaching. Although educators and the public still recognize a need for the three R's, they now realize that increased attention must be given to the career-long development of teachers. Third, the quality of what happens in the classroom depends on teacher performance. In the past, teachers were not involved in establishing the policies that affected their performance. The negotiations law in Washington now recognizes the right of teachers to negotiate such matters as curriculum, textbook selection, and staff assignments. Is it so unusual, then, that teachers should participate in the development of their own in-service training?

The WEA thus became very interested in, concerned about, and involved with the proposal. The WEA's obligation to protect teachers' rights as well as its interest in being involved as an *equal partner* in the development of

*The authors appreciate the input to this paper provided by Lillian Cady of the state superintendent's office.

teacher-training programs caused the WEA to study very carefully the recommendations in the fourth draft. Hearings were held by the state superintendent's office in different areas of the state, and the WEA paper published the fourth-draft proposal, asking local associations to react at the hearings. Also, an Office of Certification and Accreditation was established within the WEA to monitor development of the proposal and to make recommendations for changes *before* the State Board of Education took action on it.

Of course, the WEA was not alone in its attempt to influence the development of the fourth-draft proposal. Other agencies were also making their views known to the State Board of Education during the late 1960's and early 1970's, and many of the recommendations offered by WEA and these other agencies were incorporated into the final proposal considered by the State Board of Education. Thus, the *Guidelines and Standards for the Development and Approval of Programs of Preparation Leading to the Certification of School Professional Personnel* that were adopted by the State Board of Education in July 1971 were largely satisfactory to most of the parties concerned.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE '71 STANDARDS

The '71 Standards, as they have come to be called, apply to the preparation and certification of teachers, administrators, and "educational staff associates" (such as counselors, nurses, and school psychologists). Further, the '71 Standards apply to four phases of preparation and three levels of certification: for example, in teacher education, a phase leading up to student teaching, terminating in the award of a preparatory certificate; a phase between student teaching and graduation, terminating in the award of an initial certificate; a fifth-year in-service phase, terminating in the award of a continuing certificate; and career-long continuing education (not related to certification). For each phase, the '71 Standards provide for determining the objectives of preparation; delineating desired competencies in subject-matter specialties, pedagogy, and personal characteristics; and specifying minimum entry- and exit-level competencies.

The concept of parity that was first proposed in the early 1960's remains intact in the '71 Standards. Thus, practitioners—through their professional organizations—are accorded an equal voice with school districts and with colleges and universities in preservice and in-service education of school professional personnel. Parity in practice applies to overall planning, formulation of policy, assignment of responsibilities, evaluation of programs, and hearing of appeals. It is expressed through the mechanism of three-agency consortia operating at local levels. The following "Model for a Consortium and Program Triads at the Local Level" serves to illustrate the consortium idea and its operation:[1]

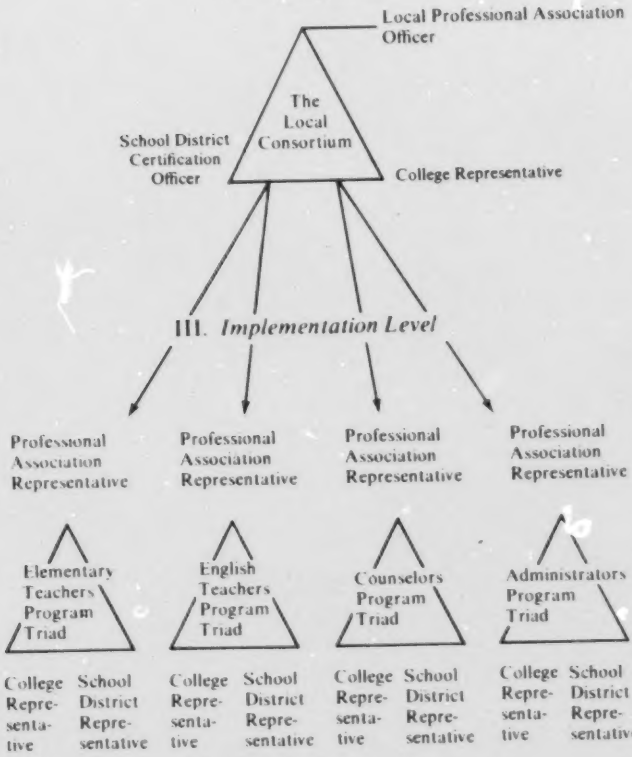
> . . . each of the three types of agencies in a triad or a consortium (colleges, school organizations, and professional associations) has an equal voice in the decision-making process. To be effective, this process will involve cooperation among the three agencies on three levels: De-

velopment, Policy and Implementation Levels. The three levels are described in the following chart:

I. *Development Level*

Informal cooperation among personnel from colleges, school district administration, and professional associations, general and specialized.

II. *Policy Level*



The nature of a consortium and its potential scope of operation are further illustrated by the following excerpts from the '71 Standards:

> For purposes of accountability, a consortium is a formal partnership of one or more colleges or universities, one or more school organizations, and one or more professional associations functioning through representatives with authority to act within parameters for their agencies in carrying out the specific requirements of the Guidelines and Standards.
>
> For purposes of developing new programs for specific role or discipline categories, the consortium is a forum of interested parties—organized groups or interested individuals—working together to determine the form and substance of a preparation program.

For purposes of implementing an adopted program, the consortium is a management system of assigned accountability and responsibility for coordinating the implementation of various aspects of the program.[2]

Each agency will insist and must be assured that there will be parity both in the power to influence decisions and in the assumption of responsibility for implementing the decisions.[3]

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE '71 STANDARDS

A major organizational problem at the very beginning was a lack of understanding of what the '71 Standards really meant and how they would work. Parity in the development and implementation of the new Standards placed a greater responsibility on both the state education association and the local education associations. The WEA had to be sure that local associations accepted their responsibility of involvement and that they did not become a rubber stamp for programs developed by colleges. The local associations, as well as the WEA, had to be sure that their representatives had the necessary training to understand the new Standards, were willing to give great amounts of extra time to program development, and could speak with authority for local associations.

The WEA organized workshops on how to be involved, printed "how-to" materials, and hired staff to assist locals in getting started. In the case of the Edmonds Education Association, the executive director read an August 1971 bulletin from the state superintendent's office announcing a new training structure and advising interested agencies that small grants were available for organizational expenses; no initial commitment was necessary—only an expression of interest and an agreement among the three essential agencies to sit down and explore what could be done. The executive director then wrote three letters: one to the state superintendent's office indicating an interest; one to Western Washington State College inviting its representative to a consortium organizational meeting; and one to the Edmonds School District inviting its representative to the same session. The state superintendent's office responded immediately with a request for further information about the potential organization—for example, names and addresses of agency representatives, program area of interest, number of meetings planned, intent of agencies, and assurance that agency representatives were appointed by the chief administrative officers of each agency. The response to the other two letters was favorable. The meeting was held, and representatives sat around trying to decide what to do next.

The consortium took shape slowly. The 1971 bulletin from the state superintendent's office was followed step by step. Before too long, the representatives found areas of disagreement, even in learning how to work together. The district representatives had the greatest reservations—about sitting at the table with professional organization representatives, which presumed equal status.

In order to clearly establish the roles of each agency, the first task was to write a set of bylaws. No thought was given to devising training programs until a mutually satisfying working relationship was realized. The bylaws dealt with—

1. *Consortium governance*—policy board membership, procedures for decision making, and provisions for dissolution, reciprocity, and expansion.
2. *Consortium management*—administration of the program, reporting and recommending certificates and endorsements, financial-fiscal activities, record-keeping, provisions for consortium evaluation (annually and "outside"), and availability of resources.

Once a set of bylaws was written to govern the operations, thoughts turned to the type of training program that the three agencies wanted to work on. Aware that a deadline had been established for development of educational staff associate programs, the Edmonds consortium agreed to work on a program for school counselors. Each agency then turned to the task of selecting its representatives to a program development committee.

Over 60 "triads" similar to the Edmonds consortium in approach and framework have now been organized to implement the '71 Standards. Some are simple three-agency consortia; some have several districts and professional organizations working with one or more colleges; and some are "umbrella consortia" of many school districts, a number of professional organizations, and several colleges, with task forces working in various disciplines. These triads are now developing new programs for selected types of school professional personnel. Eventually, there will be programs for all types of personnel, with individual triads focusing on the types most relevant to local and regional (as well as state) needs. The role and responsibilities of the trainee will also be written down and agreed upon by the three agencies.

As might be expected, when college professors, school administrators, and teachers sat down for the first time to develop competency-based programs, there was a great deal of hostility on the part of some. With regard to college professors, perhaps the hostility resulted from fear and resentment that teachers were invading what had been higher education's almost exclusive domain. The school administrators tended to side with the college professors, feeling that teachers and special services personnel were not competent to design competency-based programs for the training and evaluation of their own kind, much less administrators. However, trust among the agencies gradually developed and was sustained.

Cooperation became a fact among members of a consortium, or it was disbanded. (In Edmonds' case, the consortium's activities led to a state-approved program for certification of counselors.) Respect for each other's strengths and an understanding of each other's problems evolved. Everyone learned that not only could competency-based teacher education programs work, but also better programs could be developed using the expertise of the various agencies' representatives. Not every new teacher would have to follow the lockstep training path prescribed by traditional college preparation programs.

STRENGTHS AND PROBLEMS

A major strength of the '71 Standards is the equal voice of the three agencies. Regardless of its numerical representation on a consortium, no one agency has a greater voice than the other two. Another strength is the op-

portunity for exchange of information among consortia; each consortium does not have to reinvent the wheel. Additionally, colleges are beginning to work together; school districts and professional organizations are teaming up to develop programs that improve teachers; teachers have a better understanding of the problems faced by school districts and colleges, in regard to both human resources and funding; and school districts and colleges have a greater respect for teachers. Probably one of the main strengths from the professional organization's point of view is the opportunity for teachers to assist in the development of programs that meet needs recognized and expressed by teachers. The '71 Standards also give teachers the opportunity to contribute from their perspective to the training of other education personnel.

Not all the problems of organization and operation have been solved, however. Two problems that are of great concern and that must be overcome are as follows:

1. Development, implementation, and evaluation of programs take considerable time and effort. Only by having a large cadre of people from all three agencies who are knowledgeable about the '71 Standards can enough human resources be assured to develop and implement programs successfully. Maintenance of a high level of personal commitment will be directly related to the success of the '71 Standards.
2. The cost of consortium development is fast exceeding the small federal grants that support it. The state superintendent's office has requested funds from the legislature for 20 pilot consortia to test whether the '71 Standards represent a better way of training teachers, but so far the legislature has not responded. The legislators do not seem to understand the long-range implication: Better teachers means better students. Redeployment of existing funds would probably provide an adequate financial base for consortium development, but redeployment is not looked upon very favorably by school districts and colleges that want to protect the money they now receive. Some school districts and colleges think that the professional organizations should contribute money to consortium development. The professional organizations, on the other hand, reason that without their human resources, which are almost free of charge, programs could not be developed and implemented at all. WEA believes that the legislature should accept the responsibility to finance consortia because consortium development is a *state-adopted* program. To this end, WEA included in its legislative program support for the state superintendent's request and has assigned several lobbyists to press for consortium funding.

Another problem is that support from school districts and colleges for the '71 Standards has been carried by specific, strongly committed school districts and colleges. Neither the state school administrators association nor teacher preparation institutions as a whole have officially endorsed the approach. The WEA and most of its local associations have come out publicly with staff and resources to support the '71 Standards.

Other problems stem from school districts that either do not believe in a consortium or do not feel that a teacher voice in preparation programs is important; these district. will not release teachers to work on program de-

velopment, and thus the work must be done either after school or on Saturdays. Also, some local associations, particularly in the beginning stages of a consortium, sense their power and are too demanding—threatening that "without our vote the program will not be accepted by the state superintendent's office." Finally, even though the state superintendent's office, school districts, colleges, and professional organizations have worked diligently to inform educators about the new Standards and what they can mean to the profession, many are still ignorant of the concepts and unwilling to develop consortia. Too often, local associations are apathetic; leaders do not organize committees to work in the area of new certification and teacher training.

To a professional educator, having an equal voice (through the professional organization) with school districts and colleges in developing and implementing programs to improve both preservice and in-service teacher training is a very real challenge. "The voice of the classroom teacher" is heard and recognized. To this end, the professional organization is expending a considerable amount of time, effort, and membership funds to assure that the '71 Standards are successfully implemented.

THE '71 STANDARDS AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Those closely involved in preparing teachers have recognized for years that the four-year preservice program can only provide the new practitioner with competencies necessary for beginning professional practice. Those competencies will suffice only if the beginner is appropriately assigned, adequately supervised, and individually assisted. Unfortunately, none of these conditions exists in most situations. The realities accentuate the need for increased emphasis on in-service programs, which are not only important to the beginning teacher, but also instrumental to the continued effectiveness and competence of the career professional.

In-service education has traditionally focused on either (a) continuing formal education, such as the fifth year of college work required for certificate renewal or continuing career certification, or (b) extension, in-district, and college coursework often taken more for salary advancement than for increased competence. In most instances, neither kind of coursework has been based on a close examination or diagnosis of an individual's competencies and related needs. As with preservice education, relatively little coursework is designed with a single person in mind or structured to allow for individual progress or style. Although a current emphasis in planning learning experiences for students is "needs assessment," this emphasis has not been transferred to learning experiences designed for staff development.

The preceding comments point up two aspects of in-service programming that need change. First, the individual should be the key influence on the nature and content of in-service education. If in-service education is to affect the professional's performance, individualized assessment of needs is essential, and the professional must participate in decision making about and design of certain in-service experiences. Second, in-service experiences should relate directly to specific competencies identified as necessary to the

professional. Those in-service experiences should also be conducted in contexts most appropriate to the acquisition of needed knowledge or skills. In some instances, the context may be the college campus; in others, it may be the school classroom.

Competency-based models of preparation should offer a valid framework for in-service programming, particularly because the professional is in actual practice. The professional and her or his supervisors can more readily assess specific competencies needed to carry out the responsibilities extant in a setting and meet obligations to students on a day-to-day basis. In addition, with adequate participation by the professional, the competency-based approach speaks to every professional's desire for stimulating experiences, which are essential to personal growth and enhancement even though they may not relate directly to an instructional competency.

Although the emphasis in Washington to date has been on preservice and initial in-service (fifth-year) programs, the state has begun to examine current in-service practices and will emphasize the development of competency-based in-service programs in which agencies having vested interests participate. At present, various models of in-service education are being tested in Franklin Pierce School District, in Port Angeles, in Bellingham, and at several Teacher Corps sites affiliated with Western Washington State College. Results from the above experiments are limited to date, but not disappointing. The results already visible are:

1. In-service policies being negotiated between districts and local associations
2. Colleges and universities reshaping existing '61 Standards to model the competency-based guidelines of the '71 Standards
3. The state association proposing model contract language for local in-service policies
4. Western Washington State College making 15 graduate credits available to the Parkview Elementary School staff (in Bellingham) for study related to staff needs
5. A large number of people being committed to improving education
6. Over 60 consortium triads being formed.

Wendell Allen, who was the assistant superintendent of public instruction when the '71 Standards were born, believed that by involving people, you can create an atmosphere in which dynamic change takes place. A look at Washington now would lend support to that view.

FOOTNOTES

1. Washington Education Association, Office of Certification and Accreditation. "Model for a Consortium and Program Triads at the Local Level." *OCA Guidelines for Participation in the '71 Standards.* Seattle, Wash.: the Association, 1971. p. 6.
2. Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. *Guidelines and Standards for the Development and Approval of Programs of Preparation Leading to the Certification of School Professional Personnel.* Olympia, Wash.: the Office, 1971. Appendix A, p. ii.
3. *Ibid.*, Appendix B, p. viii.

3

IMPROVEMENT OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: A COLLABORATIVE EFFORT

E. Brooks Smith

There are two kinds of collaboration. One is coerced collaboration; the other is a free and uninhibited exchange of ideas and services as envisioned in an equal-partnership concept.

COERCED COLLABORATION

Coerced collaboration unfortunately is the kind that has been used most frequently in in-service teacher education, often under the guise of an open system. Practicing teachers have typically been subject to three dominant authorities in their in-service activity: school administration, university credits, and state department requirements for continuing certification. In recent decades, school administrations have been setting up in-service supervisory and workshop programs for teachers on curriculums that they wish teachers to use. Sometimes a teacher group is invited to join the supervisory staff in choosing a new text series or packaged program, but usually the choices are limited by the administration or simply by the modern school-management systems of delivery. Teacher accountability is in the background of these discussions, forcing teachers to subscribe to programs that seem to ensure "academic" results and are as "teacher proof" as possible. Once the text series or programmed delivery system is adopted by the administrative committee, the director of curriculum sets up a series of workshops for training the teachers in the new program. This is one common activity called in-service education.

Another type results from an informal or formal "needs assessment" directed by the main office. Teacher and student needs are processed by the administrative staff, and those needs that the staff feel will best serve their purposes are made the topics of in-service workshops. Usually, education experts are brought in from the outside to "give the word" and leave without becoming involved in the setting before, during, or following the workshop sessions. For participating, teachers are offered incentive points toward salary improvement, or sometimes college credit is arranged for their degree advancement. Such incentive systems are by nature coercive unless the subjects of the system can participate in deciding what the incentives and the means to gain them will be.

The second authority over in-service teacher education has been the university-planned program and credit system. During the social upheaval of the 1960's, some university faculties invited teachers belatedly and grudgingly to help them plan requirements for continuing certification, master's, and advanced degree programs. The teachers could advise, but not be in-

volved in the decision-making discussions. Even this small advancement toward open collaboration has not been sustained in very many collegiate institutions during the 1970's although the climate for involving teachers has improved, especially in those institutions where field-based programs are being developed.

The third authority has been the state education department or agency. With the advent of federal revenue sharing and the introduction of accountability models, this authority has grown in the past several years, even in states that have a tradition of minimal state authority over local education and the individual teacher's education for certification. Because the public, through legislatures, is presently concerned with accountability for state employees in public-financed endeavors, state departments seem to be tightening and increasing the authority that they hold over teachers through certification requirements, as exemplified by some competency-based certification proposals. However, states are also moving toward the establishment of advisory councils with strong teacher representation to help them prepare proposals for statewide efforts in curriculum development, assessment, preservice education, and in-service education.

Collaboration is more in evidence today than ever before. But will it only reinforce the coercive practices of the past, drawn from a corporate model of education management, or will it move the education establishment toward more participatory democracy in the making of professional decisions, especially those related to in-service education and curriculum development? Even the automobile industry may be moving away from its corporate model in dealing with workers on the line. Perhaps education workers can be encouraged to try out the open collaborative model of participating in key educational decisions about their work and their professional development.

OPEN COLLABORATION

The in-service education of public professional personnel must be determined and delivered through an open collaborative effort among those representing the public, the university of scholars, school administrations, and teacher organizations at different levels of decision making, with different kinds of responsibilities based on constituency and expertise, and in different modes of operation depending upon particular education settings. Each of the agencies is necessary in the decision-making process, but especially teacher organizations because teachers are the central figures in the advancement of knowledge through inquiry—a public trust.

In order for agencies to collaborate freely, several factors need to be understood by everyone, especially when participants from different types of institutions are involved. A still-valid discussion of the sociocultural and political background for collaboration in teacher education can be found in Part IV of *Partnership in Teacher Education*, and in particular, the chapters by Edward T. Ladd and Laszlo Hetenyi.[1] One way to summarize and update that discussion is to examine the "real" reasons why each agency is pushing for the teacher-center concept[2] and how each one envisions a teacher center. Essentially, each agency is peopled by professional

educators, but the agencies themselves are rather different institutions created for slightly different reasons and in different historical contexts.

The American university is the oldest of the institutions concerned. Over the years it has developed unique traditions, mores, and ways of working borrowed from early concepts of a community of autonomous scholars. Even though a corporate-management system was overlaid on the academic community in the nineteenth century, the traditions of faculty rule in a climate of academic freedom are so strong that few university presidents have learned how to survive for very long in that milieu.

On the other hand, *the American school system* has grown up according to the corporate-business model conjoined with the public bureaucracy approach to functioning. "Line-and-staff" procedure and behavior are the working ways of life, with the teacher at the worker end. Incidentally, British schools, in which the free collaborative model for in-service education has been developed quite successfully, are not cast in the corporate bureaucratic mold, but more closely resemble the faculty-collegial structure of the university.

State agencies are, of course, public bureaucracies, but they are much more influenced by and responsive to the political system than the schools are.

Teacher organizations are now assimilating the "union" model of organization and subculture. The individual teacher is oftentimes in a confusing situation because she or he is a part of all four of the institutions and has to function differently in each one—as a student, a professional worker, a citizen, or a union member, respectively.

Because of the different constituencies and idealistic goals or foci that each agency reflects in its subculture and ways of working, each has a different rationale and projected structure for teacher centers.

Teachers want teacher centers governed and operated by themselves in order to be free of the old-style in-service education controlled by school administrations, the degree and course requirements imposed by ivory-tower professors, and the certification plans and accountability systems laid on by bureaucrats. Teachers serving on the "front line" of education feel that they know best what is good education for their students and themselves, and some teacher organizations are ready to demand teacher control of teacher centers if they develop.

University schools of education are interested in initiating teacher centers because they feel that they are the only fountainheads of professional knowledge, and unless they control the future teacher centers, teachers will base new instruction on faulty ideas. They are also seeking a new student body from among experienced-teacher ranks because their preservice student enrollments are now decreasing.

School administrations see teacher centers as a ploy to make teachers think that in-service programs are the teachers', all the while the administrators are repackaging old in-service activities in bright new incentive colors for training teachers to do what the administrators want.

State agencies view teacher centers as a means of gaining more statewide control of teacher training and ultimately the curriculum because they will disburse the money for this new venture. Some officials see the teacher

center as a way of taking teacher education back from the universities and putting it once again under state control as it was in the days of the normal school, albeit with a much more sophisticated program for meeting state educational goals.

These reasons have been exaggerated to show the differences among the agencies that must collaborate freely if there is to be established a viable in-service program based on student and teacher needs, infiltrated with inquiry into knowledge, and deemed by the public to be helpful to the education of youngsters. The social, cultural, and working differences are realities that must be considered when representatives of these agencies sit down to collaborate. Community clientele, parents, and older students should also be involved in the collaboration because if they are not, the instructional innovations to come from in-service education may be blocked or subverted.

SOME CAUTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The following suggestions for collaboration in in-service education through a teacher-center concept are derived from the author's experiences in Britain with The National Schools Council curriculum development and related teachers' center activity, and in Michigan with statewide proposals and pilot models in the Macomb Intermediate School District and Region Six, Detroit Public Schools. Although the teacher-center concept is not the only possible collaborative model for in-service programs and activities, it is the model most discussed, and probably most likely to realize a free collaborative effort in those aspects of in-service education that are field based and on the job. It should not be forgotten that collaboration could be more extensively used in the two present in-service structures—namely, the school of education's graduate in-service programs and the school system's program of workshops and individual study—which could simply be expanded in their operations through collaborative means. To avoid parochialism, small school systems and regions within large systems might join together and pool resources, inviting a neighboring university to work with them. However, there are probably not enough universities to go around for this approach, and such informal collaboration might become too dependent on the personalities of the "movers." When they are gone, the collaboration would be empty without some established continuing structure like a teacher center.

Planners of teacher centers should not attempt to remake an institution or to do away with an old one and set up a new one. In-service education is only one aspect of continuing teacher education and certification, of curriculum development and instructional improvement, of general professional education and professional career development. Many of these tasks are related to in-service education and impinge on it, but do not have to be and probably should not be all focused in one new institution, no matter how efficient that might seem in a "systems" model. Collaboration on in-service education should be limited to the work with professional personnel that relates directly to ongoing classroom instruction and to direct advancement of learning in those classrooms. In-service education is an on-the-job type of professional development. A cooperative center is required

because the many material and personnel resources from the various agencies have to be brought to the site, and they have to be suited to the particular student and teacher needs emerging at that site. The resources and the strategies developed on site should have impact on the learners there. On-site in-service education has not been carried out very well in the past, but it holds the most promise for effecting change in the educational program. It cannot be done without genuine, open collaboration. Career development and general professional education (theoretical and foundational studies) would enter this arena only incidentally. The university, with advice from teachers, could best concentrate on those particular tasks because they mainly require the resources of the university.

Corollary to the above is a suggestion that collaborators avoid thinking too grandly, trying to take over jobs that they think they could do better, or trying to serve every professional all the time. Teachers need in-service education, but they do not need it every day of every year. In fact, it has been found that teachers like a rest from it. They like to redo aspects of their program and then see how the changes go over time. Indeed, a good in-service program should probably lead a teacher eventually to "self service" with access to the resources of a center. A modest but well-formulated and well-supported program or activity that can be concentrated in a school setting and then rotated among schools will perhaps be more effective in the long run than something for everyone all at once.

In the early stages of collaboration, it is usual practice to have every representative involved in every decision and every operation—a parity concept. A "differentiated partnership," as recommended by a task force of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, is both reasonable and practical: "equal participation in policy making and *differentiation* in degree of participation in management and operation"[3] according to different expertise, commitments, and responsibilities. Planners should provide some regular means for the released time of professional personnel to do in-service work on the job and/or designate additional paid work days for such activity. Free collaboration breaks down whenever one member—in this case, the teacher—is viewed as lesser than the others and is looked upon as the only one in the outfit needing in-service education. Administrators and college professors give teachers this impression by implying that only teachers need professional development and by taking time off from their own jobs for outside professional activities while denying the same privilege to teachers. A strong in-service program for teachers should provide professional development for all involved, especially when it is on site. Education professors and school supervisory personnel have much to learn if they intend to keep abreast of the changing realities of teaching. Moreover, teachers improving themselves on the job are the best models for the novice teacher. (Incidentally, novice teachers, through co-teaching devices and some independent student teaching while the teacher is released to work on improving programs, can bring real support to a teacher involved in on-site in-service education.)

Finally, it is imperative to tie in-service education to curriculum development and instructional improvement. The British teachers centers that survive and continue to serve teacher communities with dynamic pro-

grams are those that tie into the curriculum development activities of The National Schools Council or similar programs. It has also been noticed in American settings that teachers continue the work generated by in-service activities on their own when those activities are related to, or generate, curriculum development. Unless the program is changed through an evolving process of curriculum development, the isolated innovation is likely to be dropped from the teacher's repertoire over time as extraneous curriculum demands take hold. Thus, the products and process of the in-service education are lost.

Collaborative in-service education of professional personnel holds great promise if it can become both a part of the teacher's job and a part of the school's curriculum development. Experience with pilot collaborative programs thus far suggests that the extra time and effort given to planning them pay off in a feeling of enthusiasm and a sense of satisfaction that the learning situation has been enhanced. Then, open collaboration becomes a *coalition* for progress.

An example of guidelines for a state-level collaborative in-service program appears in Appendix A; the guidelines were approved by a parity advisory council in Michigan and reflect the kinds of realistic compromises that have to be made if free and open collaboration for in-service education is to be realized. Other pertinent illustrations can be found in Appendix B, which presents a proposal for a professional development center; in *A Preservice-Inservice Collaborative Model for Curricular and Instructional Development,*[4] which describes objectives, role responsibilities, and processes of teacher-oriented curriculum development; and in *Social Studies Consortium Project for Curriculum Development: General Information,*[5] which describes objectives and outcomes for teachers, students, and community participants, and the cooperative structure for accomplishing them.

FOOTNOTES

1. Smith, E. B., and others, editors. *Partnership in Teacher Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and Association for Student Teaching, 1966.
2. For clarity and ease of reading, the author has used the term *teacher center* consistently throughout this paper. However, the term is broadly conceived and includes the idea of a professional development center.
3. Denemark, G. W., and Yff, J. *Obligation for Reform.* Final Report of the Higher Education Task Force on Improvement and Reform in American Education. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1974. pp. 12–13.
4. Smith, E. B. *A Preservice-Inservice Collaborative Model for Curricular and Instructional Development: Description of This Professional Development Model with Guidelines.* Detroit: Wayne State University, 1975. (Available on request from E. Brooks Smith, College of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI 48202.)
5. Wallace, D. K. *Social Studies Consortium Project for Curriculum Development: General Information.* Detroit: Wayne State University, 1974. (Available on request from E. Brooks Smith, College of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI 48202.)

4

RESPONSIBILITIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS, STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION, INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION, AND PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Gene Bottoms

Should continuous in-service education be an integral part of the careers of educators? Can in-service education become more effective? Apparently, many educators feel that the answer to both questions must be Yes.

What agency is responsible for in-service education? Should it be the local school system, the state department of education, the institution of higher education, or the professional organization? It would be fruitless for any one of these agencies to attempt total responsibility for in-service education. The approach here will be to define the responsibilities of each of these four agencies for in-service education that results in an improved quality of school experience for students. First, a point of view will be set forth for delineating the responsibilities of each agency. Second, the responsibilities of each agency will be presented in terms of the purpose, content, design and delivery, and governance of in-service education.

POINT OF VIEW

Democratic procedures must form the basis on which policies, standards, and procedures for in-service education are formulated and applied. The creation of democratic procedures through which the four agencies can have input into the decision-making process will not result in consensus within or among agencies, but it will provide a base from which the agencies can more effectively achieve their missions. The only alternative is one of confrontation directed toward power issues rather than the educational issue of what type of in-service program is needed to increase the effectiveness of educators in meeting the needs of students. The application of formalized democratic procedures will create a means to promote communication, knowledge, and joint study, with the aim of creating an ongoing program of quality in-service education.

The four agencies' responsibilities for in-service education rest on legal, professional, and ethical bases. Certain authorities and responsibilities of each agency are either derived from or founded on law. Additionally, there are professional, technical, and ethical standards from which members of the profession can infer responsibilities.

In-service education is necessary for all educators, whether they are em-

ployed by local school systems, state departments of education, institutions of higher education, or professional organizations. Those four agencies are not made up of mutually exclusive populations. On the contrary, many educators have an identity with at least two of the agencies. Further, an examination of responsibilities for in-service education does not reveal areas that are the exclusive domain of any one agency. Rather, it reveals overlapping and interdependent responsibilities among agencies. Thus, cooperative endeavors among the four agencies are essential if a meaningful in-service program is to emerge.

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR DETERMINING THE PURPOSES OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

In-service education must have at least three purposes: to enable educators to acquire the competencies needed to (a) implement *education-improvement activities* directed toward specified student needs; (b) improve their own or expected goals of *professional development*, which may or may not lead to higher levels of certification; and (c) meet their own goals of *personal growth*. In-service education for education improvement and professional development should increasingly be one and the same. Too often, in-service education has been an end in itself rather than the means through which well-defined education-improvement activities are initiated in the schools.

Local School Systems

The local school system is the legal entity that the community holds responsible for achieving expected student outcomes. Because there is an assumed relationship between preparation of educators and student achievement, local school systems should have considerable responsibility for developing and maintaining a viable in-service program.

Local school systems have the legal responsibility to determine broad goals, policies, and procedures for local in-service programs. Further, they have an ethical responsibility to involve a representative group of educators and citizens in formulating the goals and policies. They can meet these responsibilities by periodically determining what the community expects the school system to achieve with students and the extent to which various subpopulations of students at different educational levels are achieving the expected outcomes, selecting a broad range of improved practices and procedures for bridging the gap between current and expected student achievement levels, establishing policies and procedures from which the specific objectives of in-service education can be derived by either smaller groups of educators or individuals closest to the student, and involving in-service education participants in needs assessments so they can comprehend local needs. Such an approach would enhance the probability that the primary focus of in-service education would be on increasing the competencies of educators to meet student needs more effectively.

State Departments of Education

The state department of education is responsible for seeing that public education addresses the needs of all children and youth. Certainly, the extent to which educators are continuously involved in updating and upgrading their competencies will influence the extent to which the state department of education fulfills its mission.

In determining the purposes of in-service education, the state department of education has the responsibility to determine broad areas of student need that extend across the state, identify educational practices that adequately respond to identified needs, and establish criteria to ensure that in-service programs are directed toward prestated goals and objectives.

Institutions of Higher Education

In-service education falls within the broad areas of teaching, research, and service, which are the primary missions of higher education. Institutions of higher education have a responsibility to participate in collaborative activities with the consumer—local school systems, groups within the systems, and individual educators—to define goals and objectives. Failure to assume this responsibility could result in in-service programs developed by higher education that are self-serving and unresponsive to the needs of the consumer. Institutions of higher education have the assessment, evaluation, and diagnostic expertise needed to arrive at logically related goals and objectives of the local school system and the individual educator. Further, institutions of higher education have an ethical responsibility to assist in fulfilling the primary purpose of in-service education—to enhance the capability of educators to facilitate student learning. This responsibility could be met by participating in the formulation of in-service objectives that meet the assessed needs of individual educators, and by providing follow-up assistance to these persons on the job.

Professional Organizations

Professional organizations, by their very nature, are concerned that their members maintain those qualities that characterize a professional person. In today's world of constant change, yesterday's standards of quality may be obsolete or inadequate. Thus, professional organizations have the responsibility to articulate to others—local school systems, state departments of education, institutions of higher education, and administrative and legislative branches of government—the position that a viable and effective in-service program must become an integral and continuous part of the careers of educators.

Somehow, professional organizations must help others to understand that educators want to respond more adequately to student needs, but do not always have the necessary competencies. As one teacher said recently, "I don't know how to deal with the handicapped child and I need help."

Professional organizations can carry out their broad responsibility by identifying the student needs that many educators lack the necessary skills to meet, identifying the education-improvement activities that many educa-

tors lack the necessary skills and understandings to implement, and insisting that educators be helped in determining the needs to be addressed through in-service education.

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR DETERMINING THE CONTENT OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

There are at least four primary sources from which the content of in-service education is derived: student needs; new knowledge, practices, procedures, and materials; required competencies; and the assessed needs of individual educators. The content for in-service education must grow out of the fabric of needs in a school system or school. The first step in formulating the content of in-service programs for either education improvement or professional development must be specification of student expectations and student needs. Student outcomes, assessed needs, validated practices, professional standards, and new knowledge must then be translated into desired competencies, against which each educator can be assessed to identify appropriate content for her or his in-service education.

Thus, the ultimate content of in-service education has to be individualized in terms of competencies that each educator needs to initiate improvement activities or to meet professional standards.

Local School Systems

Local school systems have the responsibility to develop a comprehensive education plan, including standards, policies, and procedures, from which the content of in-service education can be derived. Responsibility for determining the content to implement policy should then be delegated to those educators (both the participants and the deliverers) who will be affected.

These broad leadership responsibilities can be enhanced by assigning state department personnel to assist schools, groups, and individuals in determining content; seeing that persons from outside the system who may deliver the program are involved in determining content; seeing that student needs, knowledge of new practices and programs, assessments of professional personnel, and statements of needed competencies are considered by groups and individuals in determining content; and approving the content for in-service programs developed by groups or individuals within the system.

At the present time, it may be necessary for local school system leaders to direct individuals or groups within the system to determine the content for an in-service program in which they are to participate. Also, it is essential that those educators in leadership roles be involved in in-service activities with teachers so that appropriate support and resources can be provided to the teacher in the implementation of the improvement activity.

State Departments of Education

State departments of education are staffed by educators who must work with the education community, government boards, legislatures, governors, and lay citizens to carry out the state's responsibility for education. As edu-

cators, state department leaders have a professional responsibility to ensure that the content for in-service education is determined through a systematic approach. This responsibility can be achieved in part through disseminating information to local school systems about validated practices, curriculums, and programs; providing local school systems with validated and reliable procedures to assess the needs of students and staff; providing local school systems with resources that can be used in determining content; bringing together leaders from local school systems and leaders from higher education to develop cooperative working relationships in determining content; and placing in-service education in its proper role as one part of a local education plan that facilitates the implementation of other parts.

Institutions of Higher Education

Institutions of higher education have a professional responsibility to relate new knowledge to the individual needs of educators in their local settings. There is a greater likelihood that new knowledge will be related to local needs when institutions of higher education report pertinent research findings to local school systems, continuously participate in activities with local school systems in order to better understand in-service needs, and make assessment of individuals participating in in-service programs a prerequisite to defining the content of an in-service program.

Professional Organizations

The professional organization has the responsibility to create readiness among educators to participate in the formulation of content for their in-service programs. Motivation to participate should not be based on a negative mental set exemplified by "If you don't get involved, look at what they are going to do to you." Rather, participation should be the result of positive motivation.

First, the professional organization must help its members become aware that competencies must be continuously assessed in light of new knowledge and higher expectations of performance.

Second, the professional organization must help educational leaders understand that persons involved in determining their own objectives and content for learning are more motivated, and then help them formulate approaches for achieving this involvement.

Third, the professional organization must help its members understand that participation in the determination of content for their own in-service programs is a professional responsibility.

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR THE DESIGN AND DELIVERY OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

In-service education is designed and delivered by local school systems, state departments of education, institutions of higher education, and professional organizations. However, local school systems and institutions of higher education are the primary deliverers of in-service education. Local school systems have a greater responsibility for providing in-service

education that has education improvement as its primary objective, whereas institutions of higher education have a greater responsibility for in-service education that combines education improvement with graduate programs.

The nature of the in-service activities should not be decided solely by those who are to conduct the program. Rather, each of the major parties involved has the responsibility to identify jointly some basic standards that must be met. Once standards have been identified, those who will be responsible for conducting the in-service program should design it. However, the design should be flexible enough to help the participants in formulating objectives, means for achieving objectives, and criteria and procedures for evaluating accomplishments.

Those who conduct the in-service program should not be responsible for determining whether desired objectives are achieved. Regardless of who evaluates the in-service program, the participants should be given an opportunity to indicate the extent to which they were assisted in achieving their prestated objectives.

Local School Systems

In the design and delivery of in-service education, the local school system has the responsibility to establish minimum standards that programs must meet. Local school systems might require that in-service programs address both cognitive and procedural skills and that evidence be presented that new practices have been adopted and demonstrated by participants on the job. It would be reasonable for the local school system to establish as criteria for in-service programs the effective teaching practices that have been validated by research.

As consumers of higher education, local school systems have the responsibility to join with higher education in modifying or redesigning graduate programs to focus more on the needs of educators within the context of local priorities. Such collaboration would enable graduate and in-service education to become congruent where desirable.

For those educators required to participate, in-service education should take place during the time they are under contract with the local school system. Finally, the local school system should assign to someone responsibility for evaluating the achievement of program goals and the overall participation of staff and for making recommendations on the basis of reported outcomes.

State Departments of Education

To encourage the design and delivery of in-service education that results in improved educational opportunities for students, the state department of education must accept as its responsibilities the following: requesting and receiving an annual state appropriation for in-service education that is allocated to local school systems on the basis of an approved plan; disseminating promising designs and methods of delivery; promoting research, development, and dissemination of new and innovative practices,

procedures, methods, techniques, and materials; and making modifications in approved-program criteria that encourage major consideration of local needs in determining the content, design, and delivery of graduate programs.

Institutions of Higher Education

A major purpose of graduate education must be to enable educators to acquire the cognitive and procedural skills necessary to meet the needs of students with whom they work. Higher education institutions have a responsibility to design graduate programs that result in the acquisition of these skills. The charge that such graduate education will become too localized, too narrow, and nonscholarly is simply not credible. If one can, in fact, convert new knowledge into competence that results in improved performance of students, is not the possibility of transfer to another setting greater than if the program addresses only cognitive knowledge?

In addition, institutions of higher education must accept the responsibility to work cooperatively with local school systems to integrate the resources of both agencies into the design and delivery of in-service education, accept professional responsibility to design and deliver in-service programs modeling validated practices and procedures that local personnel are expected to demonstrate, and accept the legal responsibility to provide the professional resources and expertise necessary to deliver in-service programs that meet the needs of educators.

Professional Organizations

The professional organization has the responsibility to develop an understanding of what quality in-service education is and what it can achieve. This responsibility can be facilitated through establishing standards that in-service programs should meet, encouraging alternative delivery systems related to needs of individual educators, establishing standards that educators must meet before they can lead in-service programs, designing and conducting model in-service programs for others to observe, making periodic evaluations of a representative sample of in-service programs and reporting the results, and creating an awareness of support resources in addition to in-service education that are necessary for educators to implement a given education improvement.

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR THE GOVERNANCE OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Governance addresses the question, How shall policies be made to determine what will be done in in-service education? The structure of the decision-making process for in-service education may vary from state to state or from setting to setting depending upon the legal authority of each agency, the tradition in terms of creating nonlegal structures through which each agency participates, and the tradition of leadership of each agency. There is no single right way that should be imposed in all settings for formu-

lating in-service policies; rather, there must be some formalized process that allows representatives from each of the four agencies to have input into the decision-making process.

Local School Systems

Having an educational program that achieves community expectations depends in large part upon competent personnel who are responsive to student needs. Thus, it is only logical that local school systems have decision-making authority regarding in-service education. For it to be otherwise would remove a major means by which education is improved.

However, to have decisions made exclusively by educators removed from the classroom would be equally unwise, for such decisions would not have been examined against the criterion of the real world. Thus, local school systems have a professional and legal responsibility to formalize a means through which a representative group of educators can formulate policies, standards, and procedures regarding a communication system to keep personnel informed about in-service education; released time, salary increases, etc., to encourage participation in in-service education; criteria for approving in-service programs within the system; and criteria for assessing the effectiveness of in-service programs in terms of on-the-job performance.

State Departments of Education

The state department of education has the legal responsibility to assure that the public schools are staffed with personnel who have the competencies necessary for meeting student needs in a changing society. To remove this authority from the state department of education would remove the major means for controlling the quality of education. Yet the state department of education is not an island, for its policies regarding in-service education affect each of the other three agencies discussed here. Thus, the state department of education has an ethical responsibility to foster a decision-making process that enables representatives from local school systems, institutions of higher education, and professional organizations to participate in establishing criteria through which on-the-job performance can become the major means for determining the effectiveness of in-service education, criteria through which in-service education can be used for renewal of higher-level certification, and criteria for use by the state department of education in approving local in-service plans. Further, the state department of education has an ethical responsibility to provide leadership that results in the involvement of local educators in planning, implementing, and evaluating local in-service programs.

Institutions of Higher Education

Institutions of higher education have an ethical responsibility to formalize a process through which local school systems, state departments of education, and professional organizations can have continuous input into decisions regarding the substance, design, and delivery of graduate

education. Such a process could begin to address policies and procedures necessary for new knowledge acquired in graduate education to be converted into procedural skills on the job.

Professional Organizations

Professional organizations have the ethical responsibility to promote a democratic process through which educators from different assignments and settings can have input into decisions regarding in-service education. Further, professional organizations should promote standards of quality for in-service programs and educators, and develop readiness programs and information materials on the responsibility of educators in cooperatively planning and implementing in-service programs.

SUMMARY

Each of the four agencies considered here has the ethical responsibility to develop procedures through which the other three can have input into decisions regarding in-service education. Each has the professional responsibility to see that in-service education is developed and implemented on valid principles of management, planning, and learning. In addition, each agency is in some way legally responsible for promoting means through which educators can update and upgrade their skills and knowledge.

5

AGENCY ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION*

Patricia A. Orrange
Mike Van Ryn**

A combination of many factors, including a growing supply of certified teachers, major increases in teacher salaries resulting from effective collective bargaining, and demands for educational accountability arising from a variety of public concerns, has sparked a recent emphasis on the training of individuals entering and practicing the teaching profession. The late 1960's and early 1970's can be characterized as a period of massive overhaul of preservice professional training programs. There is evidence in every part of this country that the cries of inadequate preparation are being responded to in a number of sensible, relevant ways, not the least of which is the movement toward competency-based teacher-training programs. However, the response cannot stop at the preservice level. Any valid appraisal of the situation requires a reexamination of the total training procedure, including the continuing education of the in-service teacher.

In-service teacher training means many things to many people. Sabbatical leaves, graduate courses and master's degrees, continuing education courses, conferences, conventions, workshops, television programs, committee work, and one-shot lectures all come under the general heading of in-service efforts. Some of these activities are, or can be, definitely job related; others simply are not. Each may contribute to the continuing professional growth of a teacher and, as such, fall under the general concept of professional growth and development. For the purpose of this discussion, however, a definition of more limited scope and efficient reference is required. Mike Van Ryn, chief of the Bureau of Inservice Education of the New York State Education Department, defines in-service education within the following narrow but entirely workable construct:

> Inservice education is that portion of professional development that should be publicly supported and includes a program of systematically designed activities planned to increase the competencies—knowledge, skills, and attitudes—needed by school personnel in the performance of their assigned responsibilities.

There is no question in any quarter that a renewed emphasis on in-service education is imperative. Educators from the individual classroom right up

*This paper was prepared as a basis for study, discussion, and information. It is not the policy of the Teacher Education Conference Board or the New York State Education Department.
**The author accepts responsibility only for the portion of this chapter that deals with the role of state education departments.

to the U.S. Office of Education recognize the crucial need for more effective continued training. However, in-service education is ill financed in most, if not all, states. Although educators at all levels of the education enterprise give considerable lip service to the importance of in-service education in helping school personnel cope with changes in curriculum, methodology, materials, organizational structure, and student needs, there is little evidence that adequate financial resources are available to enable school staffs to organize in-service programs. Recent data collected by the New York State Education Department suggest that school districts in New York spend less than one-tenth of 1 percent of their annual operating budgets to support in-service education programs. Numerous districts indicated that they make no direct expenditures at all on in-service education.

The widespread recognition of need, then, frequently falters under the weight of second-phase questions like finance—and also control, construct, initiation, design, delivery, and time restraints. Questions of roles and responsibilities create major stumbling blocks to fast-paced progress in developing new programs. Among these questions are:

- Who should maintain primary control of in-service training?
- What are the objectives of the training?
- What agencies should be involved in the determination of objectives?
- Where should the training take place and when?
- Who should initiate the training?
- What form should the training take?
- Who is responsible for conducting the training?
- How much time is required for conceptualization and implementation?
- Just what are the appropriate roles and responsibilities of higher education institutions, state education departments, teacher organizations, and school districts in the professional development of teachers?

Here we will attempt to bring to the surface some of the issues underlying the various questions mentioned above. It is our opinion that by examining each agency's role as perceived by that agency, much can be accomplished toward negotiating solutions to the questions presented.

THE ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

The higher education institution has traditionally played the primary leadership role in the professional development of teachers. Supported by state requirements for coursework beyond the baccalaureate degree to achieve standard or permanent certification, colleges and universities have flourished by providing the necessary facilities, personnel, and programs. The state of New York presently has some 61 higher education institutions with programs that lead to permanent certification in 50 education-related fields.

If in-service training were to remain as it is now—a generalized catchall not necessarily job related—the dominance of higher education might also continue. However, the need is rapidly becoming obvious for higher

education institutions to modify and, in some cases, to totally redesign the service they provide. Although they should continue to offer programs for the limited population wishing to undertake formal doctoral studies, universities should give emphasis in teacher training to the practicing professional with job-related needs. No longer is the college campus the only acceptable location for continued learning. Teacher centers, housed in everything from vacant schools to unused supermarkets, are springing up all over the country. Emphasis is being place on convenience, space, and accessibility rather than past practice. No longer are college professors considered the singular well of truth and knowledge. Peer instruction and sharing are gaining respectability as highly effective vehicles for improving classroom teacher performance. No longer can individuals who are far removed from day-to-day contact with elementary and secondary schools dictate what is relevant and necessary for survival. Sophisticated needs-assessment instruments are pinpointing priorities and identifying actual problem areas from which program developers take direction.

The burden for change and flexibility, then, is on the traditional leaders, the higher education institutions. Their individual and collective capacity for openness and their willingness to change will determine the amount of control that they will maintain. The traditional finance structure of higher education institutions will need to be reexamined with an eye toward on-site (school-based) activities, and college faculty participation with school district personnel in training programs will need to be given high priority and accompanying status.

Perhaps the most dynamic and difficult adjustment will be required in the area of collaboration. The concept of formal collaboration is relatively new to development of programs for training and certification. The U.S. Office of Education and state education departments have provided the impetus—often a mandate—for higher education institutions to work jointly with public school districts and teacher organizations. Much has been learned in New York State about the nature of collaboration and the problems that arise as a direct result of attempts to mandate cooperation.

In 1972, the New York State Regents mandated a total conversion to a competency-based mode for all teacher-training programs. The Regents coupled with this mandate a requirement that new programs be the effort of not only the university, but also school districts and "appropriate professional personnel." The condition two-and-one-half years later clearly defines several problems:

1. Developing a trust relationship between several diverse constituencies requires time. Vested interests and anglings for position consume much of the initial energy of these groups at work. Crucial problems of representation, including who speaks for whom, must be astutely addressed.
2. Shared decision making brings with it shared responsibility. Determining where the traditional responsibility of the university ends and the new consortium responsibilities begin often leads to conflict.
3. The ability to provide funds, expertise, time, and commitment varies from agency to agency. Increasing the number of persons involved in

program development and implementation automatically increases the cost.

4. Innovations, such as flexible programming and individualization, appear to be feasible only after legalistic governance issues are resolved.

Recognizing and planning for these problems prior to embarking on a collaborative effort will not only facilitate the process, but also forestall the frustration that comes with short, painstaking beginning steps.

THE ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS

State education departments have the responsibility to promote, encourage, and assist the development of in-service programs for public school personnel. They should maintain the role of primary support mechanism. Through their leadership, consultative, and regulatory functions, they should facilitate the establishment of local, regional, and statewide in-service programs that are systematically designed to improve the quality of services available to the clients of the school.

In working toward their mission of promoting well-supported, systematically designed programs to enhance the skills, behaviors, and knowledge of public school personnel, state education departments must be prepared to do the following:

1. Seek adequate financial resources to support in-service activities.
2. Render technical and consultative assistance to higher education institutions, teacher organizations, school districts, and boards of cooperative educational services.
3. Develop and maintain an information system on various aspects of in-service education.
4. Sponsor statewide in-service programs addressed to specific needs.
5. Facilitate the articulation of preservice and in-service education.
6. Use the regulatory process of certification to foster collaborative support for in-service programs.

In each instance, success will depend on the state education departments' ability to promote and sustain collaboration among higher education institutions, teacher organizations, and school districts.

State education departments, then, in concert with teacher organizations and school districts, will need to seek financial aid from state legislatures on some sort of formula basis so that an adequate level of support can be established for in-service education. Recent actions in Florida may be instructive: As part of its general aid formula, the legislature in that state has made $5.00 per student available to each county school system for the express purpose of supporting in-service education. Florida's per-student formula may not be appropriate for any other state, but it does provide an example of how a state can initiate a financial-support system for staff development.

In seeking state support for in-service education, state education departments will need to develop a clear and precise rationale in order to convey to the legislature and the state's executive office the benefits that may accrue to the clients of the school if well-designed and appropriate in-service education opportunities are available to school personnel. A well-articu-

lated position on in-service education that has the support of the major education forces within a state will prompt serious consideration by those who hold the power of the state purse.

In brief, it is foolish to continue to assume that quality in-service programs can be established without an adequate financial base. Therefore, it is incumbent on state education departments to mount a well-conceived and sustained drive to seek the necessary state aid for in-service education.

In discharging their technical-assistance and consultative responsibilities for in-service education, state education departments must help higher education institutions, teacher organizations, and school districts design and plan in-service education programs that will meet the needs of school personnel and the districts in which they are employed. State education department personnel engaged in these tasks should be able to render specific help to districts in such areas as needs assessment, program design, program management, evaluation, staffing, and governance.

To support the above functions, state education departments should develop and maintain an information system on in-service education. Such a system should collect and disseminate information about—

1. Innovative in-service practices and procedures.
2. Consultants and resources available to conduct in-service activities.
3. Research about effective in-service education programs.
4. Assessment and evaluation procedures for judging the effectiveness of in-service programs.

Using a variety of formats such as workshops, conferences, audio cassettes, bibliographies, and periodic newsletters, state education departments can provide pertinent and up-to-date information about in-service education to teachers, administrators, and college personnel.

Additionally, it is appropriate for state education departments to sponsor statewide in-service offerings addressed to particular needs. Such needs may be manifested when the state introduces a new or revised curriculum and a large number of teachers require information about its implications and dimensions. When such a situation arises, the state education department should mount an extensive in-service program to inform and instruct the school staff members affected. Various in-service vehicles such as regional workshops, public television, and college institutes may be used for such in-service activities. Statewide efforts, however, should also be planned, designed, and implemented with representatives of appropriate school personnel and professional groups so that the activities may be fashioned in the most fruitful manner.

For many years, it has been recognized that there is a need to articulate preservice and in-service programs of preparation. No preservice programs—no matter how well conceptualized, designed, and implemented—can prepare school personnel who over time will not become obsolete. State education departments have a responsibility to encourage a closer relationship between preservice and in-service education in various ways, but especially through their accreditation procedures. By encouraging greater emphasis on field experiences for preservice students, by fostering the development of teaching centers that provide services to both preservice and in-service teachers, and by suggesting collaborative approaches to the plan-

ning, design, implementation, and evaluation of preparation programs, state education departments can facilitate the articulation of preservice and in-service teacher education.

Closely related to the states' use of their accreditation responsibility to promote a closer articulation between preservice and in-service programs is the use of their authority in certification. State education departments can advance the cause of in-service education by permitting credit toward certification to be earned through participation in well-designed in-service programs. Just as state education departments now accredit preservice programs and certify graduates upon recommendation, so might they "accredit" in-service programs that use the resources of various education agencies (higher education institutions, teacher organizations, and school districts) and incorporate standards promoting teaching excellence.

In carrying out their support function in in-service education, state education departments have one additional responsibility, which has heretofore not been mentioned. They must make a major effort to coordinate the gathering of data to demonstrate that in-service education helps teachers perform better and that it is of benefit to the clients of schools. At present, there is little evidence about the value of in-service education in creating improved learning conditions or in effecting desired outcomes for children. Whether the lack of evidence is due to poorly planned and poorly conducted in-service activities, too few in-service programs addressed to the direct needs of the participants, or the failure to collect usable data is not known. However, if state education departments, along with other sections of the education profession, are going to mount a sustained drive for improving the status and quality of in-service education, they will need to give ever-increasing attention to collecting evidence about its effectiveness. They cannot really expect scarce resources to be deployed for activities the value of which they cannot demonstrate.

THE ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHER ORGANIZATIONS

Perhaps the least recognized but most crucial agencies in developing successful in-service training programs are the teacher organizations. Over the past decade, teacher organizations have grown in size, political sophistication, and professional awareness, increasing the involvement and impact of the individual classroom teacher in every aspect of education affairs. Collective bargaining now allows teachers to exercise control over the terms and conditions of their employment. Terms and conditions are more than merely salary and fringe benefits; curriculum development, evaluation procedures, class size, and organizational improvements all fall within the purview of collective-bargaining agreements.

National teacher organizations like the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers have consistently called for initiation or, in some instances, redesign of state professional standards and practices commissions to ensure that certification and licensing procedures are determined and controlled by educators. Resolutions encouraging careful consideration of experimental internship proposals are priority items for both organizations. State affiliates across the country have taken

particular interest in the movement toward competency/performance-based teacher education and preservice teacher-training centers. Many local teacher organizations have committed time and talent to the development of such programs.

This interest and involvement has naturally extended to in-service training procedures and content. Common sense dictates that in-service education not be imposed on but rather be designed by teachers. Vested interest is intensified by feelings of ownership and total involvement. Teachers take the position that practicing professionals are the real education experts and that much emphasis in training should be given to peer interaction and sharing of proven techniques. This stand is in many instances considered revolutionary. However, teacher organizations maintain that without their cooperation and support, no in-service training program can be successful. They use this point as the given in any discussion of district training programs. The "of-by-and-for" position of teacher organizations increases the strain placed on newly introduced multiagency arrangements; yet it is considered essential for functional participation by teachers. Governance and control, therefore, are the primary issues for the teacher organization.

Following closely is the issue of finance. Teacher organizations have taken the position that it is not and should not be their members' responsibility to subsidize advanced training to meet an individual district's needs. In-service training should be an integral part of the total school program, not adjunct and fragmented. If in-service education is essential for a district to guarantee a quality education to its clients, then the district is responsible for providing adequate funding.

Questions of when and where are directly associated with finance. In-service sessions after the regular work day or on weekends can be effective for only a limited number of teachers created from the strongest fabric. The ideal situation would incorporate in-service education into the school system's total instructional design. It might then be conducted during the school work day, reaching the entire teaching population on a systematic, ongoing basis. This would not preclude options for flexible program content; rather it would extend the options to the largest population within the most effective design. The school building itself would then become the locus of education not only for students, but also for their teachers. Control of in-service education for purposes of evaluation and research would be greatly simplified. Teachers working as faculty units or teams could more readily tackle and more efficiently solve total school or individual classroom problems.

The general responsibility of teacher organizations falls within the areas of initiation, promotion, and cooperation. Their leadership role necessitates taking an active part in originating programs and stressing the importance of those programs with the school district and school community. The establishment of joint teacher–school district–college committees to assess needs, plan strategies, and implement programs should be a teacher initiative. If the primary leadership role in in-service education in the future is to be assumed by teacher organizations, then their effort and commitment will have to match that role.

THE ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS

The growing complexity of the teaching art–science and the increasing demands upon schools to treat many of society's ills have combined to place school districts and their administrations at the cutting edge of the movement toward improved in-service education. The traditional assumptions of the school district that the maintenance of professional competence is largely an individual responsibility and that competence is what it hires and pays for no longer stand firm. It is ridiculous to assume that a person beginning teaching after four years of college will be totally effective, completely capable of meeting the needs of the students in her or his charge. The best that can be said is that the person is ready to begin and that improvement will continually need to be fostered.

The school district, therefore, needs to provide the environment in which the professional can continue to improve and develop. Its financial responsibility for staff development is considerable. It is accountable to the community for providing the highest-quality education possible, which can only be accomplished by hiring staff with the greatest potential and then developing that potential. Not only is this staff development expensive, but also it must be continually justified.

School district contributions to staff development are most frequently attained by secondary means such as sabbatical leaves and salary increments for years of experience or continued study, which have a disjointed effect on the total in-service effort. Although they often involve large sums of money for a district, they actually do not fall within the constraints of our original definition. Their effect is indirect, unsystematic, and limited to a small population. Staff development, by our definition, should be within the construct of performance of assigned responsibilities, planned with a systematic, ongoing intent.

Some financial options are available. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Emergency School Assistance Act, and other federal legislation provide funding for limited populations within specific programs. The irony of the present situation is that frequently support staff for the classroom teacher, such as teacher aides and reading assistants, are better trained than the teacher. Federal guidelines allow only federally funded personnel to be trained with federal money. Increased federal awareness of the need for in-service training for a broader population might encourage the release of more aid for this purpose.

The most viable option at the present time, however, seems to be state legislatures. School districts, in concert with other education agencies and with the support of interested community groups, can greatly influence the people who hold the purse strings and make policy at the state level.

School administrators should provide a valuable perspective to any in-service program. They see problems within a school from a unique point of view. Frequently, they can assess needs from a total program approach and eliminate the "forest-for-the-trees" type of confusion. Their role is often complicated, however, and sometimes obscured, by human relations problems that are brought on by their supervisory and managerial positions. It is essential that they rise above these problems in order to function effectively

with teachers in a collaborative effort. Training by threat, or in a threatening atmosphere, can only decrease positive effects. Every attempt must be made to develop the helping relationship required for the most beneficial results.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Evaluation is crucial to the design and implementation of any in-service program. Effective decision making requires knowing where a program has been and what is happening in process. A system of jointly agreed-upon checks and balances, incorporating reasonable and equitable monitoring, will help to guarantee full agency participation and mutual support. Justification of expenditures and effort, time, and commitment can be readily achieved through recognition that a stated goal has been accomplished and there are hard data to prove it.

Any discussion of in-service education, however, will remain just that—discussion—unless several essential factors exist. Effective programming requires time to develop it, money to support it, and a system that encourages each agency to function in its role. There must also be legal sanction for the governance structure and the process it determines, with the budget necessary to implement policy and procedures.

Agency roles in the context of a changing power structure are most difficult to define. Control of a system has traditionally rested with the funding agent. The present evolutionary process that in-service education appears to be following, however, implies a nontraditional track. It is no longer appropriate to assume that money means full control. Teacher organizations are asserting their prerogative and insisting upon significant involvement in every aspect of program development and implementation. They are pressing for rights of sign-off and due process to reinforce their stature. The ultimate success of their position will depend on their ability to enlist other agencies as working partners in a joint effort.

6

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CERTIFICATION AND "IN-SERVICE" EDUCATION*

J. Alden Vanderpool

Any thoughtful consideration of standards and practices for certification of public school personnel raises countless questions. Couple certification with an anomaly called "in-service" education, and another host of questions rises like January's tule fog in the California bottomlands. Try to decipher the relationships between the two—actual, imagined, or desired—and the fog becomes completely impenetrable.

What are the relationships between certification and "in-service" education of public school personnel? Too many intimate relationships have been attempted; few have been consummated. What should the relationships be? There should be no relationships, and none should be attempted.

But what is certification? Is certification of public school personnel *licensure* in the classic sense of the senior professions?

L. B. Kinney made the point two decades ago that certification of public school personnel is not a true professional licensure process but instead merely a civil service process. He argued that true professional licensure is controlled by licensed members of the profession. Kinney published this argument in 1964, but he made it in his seminars as early as 1955. His published declaration reads as follows:

> Education presents the anomaly of a profession without licensure. Certification, which has generally been accepted as licensure in education, was not designed for the purpose and is not effective in serving it. Since licensure is the process by which a profession controls the quality of its membership and thus determines its efficiency as a profession, the consequences of its lack are serious both for the profession and for the public.[1]

Twenty years of changes in certification since Kinney came to this conclusion have not brought certification to professional licensure status. Typically, standards for entry into law, medicine, and engineering (to name only three) are neither waived nor lowered during times of shortage of personnel with particular attributes. Certification standards for teaching ebb and flow with the tide of available personnel. Some members of teacher organizations, even some leaders, who are now blanketed securely into collective-bargaining contracts, entered the profession with substandard qualifica-

*This paper was prepared as a basis for study, discussion, and information. It is not the policy of the California Teachers Association.

tions. Such a circumstance would not be found in any senior profession in this country.

Obviously, possession of a certificate means little about having qualified for entry into practice. Too often, it merely means that a person was available when the standards were such that she or he could be employed.

It has almost always been the practice to put "teachers" with substandard preparation on the payroll. Indeed, it is still common practice to certify people because they are needed or possess some attribute extraneous to professional competence. California even certifies them if they have become noticed in some other line of work ("eminent") without requiring that they be trained as teachers or that they even undertake "in-service" education in teaching, once employed. Current efforts by district, state, and national authorities to replace teachers with paraprofessionals who have not even had the benefit of professional training are merely the latest additions to a long list of horrible examples. Involvement of such paraprofessionals in direct instructional contact with students even undercuts certification as a civil service process: Paraprofessionals often do not have to obtain civil service authorization or verification of good health and freedom from criminal records.

Is it an important question whether teaching is a licensed profession or merely a certified civil service occupation? I believe it is.

Teachers, by organizing and exerting collective effort, are achieving power, more power than they have had at any time in the past. Power cannot be exercised in a social vacuum. Its exercise will have effects on the social structure. Whether the society at large will allow teachers to exercise their increasing power will depend to a large extent on how and toward what ends they use it.

If teachers do not use their power to rekindle the barely flickering flame of desire to become a full-fledged profession (which was lit by T. M. Stinnett and a few others, largely in the National Education Association's TEPS movement) and that flame dies in a retreat to mere civil service status, it will be meaningless to ask whether licensure is certification or certification is licensure. It will be meaningless because most civil servants seem to take little or no responsibility for the policies and operations of the enterprise. Like traditional unionists, they mostly do whatever the authorities tell them to do as long as they are paid all that they can get, have all the security that they can get, and have a good package of fringe benefits. But little by little, these traditions are being broken. The day may arrive when even traditional unions become socially conscious about ripping up the landscape for coal or building automobiles that waste natural resources, pollute the atmosphere, and needlessly kill people. Civil servants may become advocates against government processes that systematically deny the poor and ignorant access to social justice. Teachers are approaching a turning point: Will they adopt the traditional union approach of taking little responsibility for the consequences of their practices as long as they have high salaries, good fringe benefits, an effective grievance process, and job security?

This writer is among those who believe that teachers will eventually build a new kind of organization. They will take elements from both the tradi-

tional union (which has been darkly sketched here) and the traditional professional organization, and forge a socially responsible organization that will be an effective guarantor of high-quality services as well as a protector of rights and an advocate of greater material rewards. The enlightened self-interest of teacher organizations dictates that this must happen. Current power struggles among organizational leadership groups and among organizations are merely prelude. There is a compelling rationale for this position, as follows.

The vast majority of teacher organization members are paid from public funds. If the schools are not serving public goals adequately, or are not perceived to be serving public goals adequately, the schools will lose essential public support. It is in the enlightened self-interest of teacher organizations, then, to assure that the public schools are effectively serving public goals and are so perceived. This means that teacher organizations have a stake not only in getting more money in the till, but also in assuring high-quality services. Quality breeds confidence; support follows confidence.

As teachers opt to build a new kind of organization, they must use their power to achieve licensure in the classic sense. They must gain control of standards for entry and continuation in practice. They must control continuing development, shaping it to serve the needs of the individual professional, the site faculty, the district, the state, and the society. The objectives must be to assure high-quality services and to protect the qualified practitioner from competition with the unqualified. The examples set by the senior professions and the traditional unions must be improved upon in all these respects.

Teachers can support the cost of a standards process through the mode of professional licensure. This is being demonstrated in California where a fee of $20 for initial issuance of preliminary certificates supports a $2 million annual budget for certification, program development, and approval. If the practice of periodic *registration* (not renewal) of licenses were adopted, as in law, medicine, accounting, and engineering, the resulting fees could easily support an agency with considerable impact on precertification programs.

At the present time, the agency in California that issues certificates is controlled by a majority of persons who are not subject to certification statutes (university professors and lay citizens). Thus, from Kinney's point of view, California's Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing is not a professional licensing agency. However, the lines are not sharply drawn because the agency has been especially responsive (as compared to the former agency) to the points of view of those who are subject to certification statutes.

Time will tell whether teachers in California achieve true professional licensure. No doubt it depends largely on how they use the resources of their professional organization to express their conviction that professional licensure should be achieved. Of course, it also depends on whether the legislature can be persuaded that teachers will use professional licensure to improve the quality of services to students. Legislatures are more likely to

be convinced that teachers should have this much control when teacher organizations devote more of their own resources to improving the quality of teaching services.

Whether certification is a civil service process or a professional licensure process, what purposes can it serve?

State governments have tried to use certification to accomplish things that it is not suited to do or that should not be done at all. For example, it has been used to control and delimit program development in teacher education. The California legislature (as one illustration) has stipulated in the certification statutes that a college degree must include studies evenly distributed over four named fields and must total 84 units. Further, the legislature has defined technical preparation for teaching as not more than 9 units plus a semester of full-time student teaching. It has also outlawed education as an acceptable degree program for a certificate. By so doing, it has truncated the task of program development in colleges to haggling over interpretations of specific language in the statutes and waiting for direction from the regulatory agencies. Thus, the legislature has very effectively castrated efforts to build imaginative, innovative programs of teacher education.

The point is that the effort to use certification to control teacher education programs has failed. Likewise, trying to use certification to control continuing development will fail. The history of state-agency prescriptions of units or credits for continuing development should bring anyone up short who seriously considers the historical consequences of that approach. Certification in the arena of continuing development is a meat ax when a scalpel is needed.

If certification becomes a professional licensure process, members of the profession will have to recognize that it, too, will be unsuited to controlling continuing development. Some professions, in California at least, are being bludgeoned by that same legislature into using their professional licensure processes to control professional development. They should take a lesson from teachers and realize that prescribing "150 clock hours each two years" to *renew* a life license leads to perfunctory, stereotyped conformity and not to professionally responsible development.

Certification or professional licensure can serve only to attest that the individual is ready to *begin* practice. It cannot effectively serve to assure that once certified, the person keeps up to date. This task must be assigned to the individual practitioner and her or his employer. As teacher organizations gain power, they can more effectively bring the resources of individual members, school districts, colleges and universities, and government agencies to bear in providing meaningful and relevant opportunities to discharge the practitioner's responsibilities for continuing development.

Programs that lead to state-issued certificates should be under the control of a state agency composed of those members of the profession who are subject to certification. This, in the senior professions, is what is meant by "in control of the profession."

State-issued certificates include not only those authorizing entry into public school practice, but also those for specialist functions such as spe-

cialist in reading or specialist in bilingual–multicultural education. Also included are certificates that authorize service outside the classroom—in managerial roles, business roles, and so on. The programs that lead to all these certificates are a legitimate concern of the profession, exercised through a state agency.

There should be a point, however, at which an individual is awarded the right to practice without further direction from "Big Brother" in the state capitol. It is symptomatic, perhaps, of the degree to which the society has lost its capacity to trust, to depend upon integrity, that a new surge of "jack 'em up," "shape up or ship out," "accountability" is upon the schools. In California, this approach comes not only from conservative Republicans!

Once individuals are awarded the right to practice, whatever happens or fails to happen in their continuing development is not the business of the state agency until incompetence is established. That agency is too far removed. To keep teachers enslaved to a state agency by forever meeting renewal requirements is to deny them recognition as self-directing, inner-motivated professionals with genuine concerns about improving the quality of their services.

It seems contradictory and irrational that organizations purporting to represent teachers would actually support perpetual enslavement of their members to a state agency. The teacher organization's obligation to help its members increase their competencies should be discharged in the free marketplace—in dynamic relationships with school districts, higher education institutions, state agencies not connected with credentials, and other appropriate agencies.

In states that have not yet achieved a separation of the power to issue and revoke certificates from the power to support continuing development, the latter power should at least be outside the purview of the subagency unit with the power to issue and revoke certificates. Certification agencies have a deadly propensity to straightjacket continuing development in units and hours. It is yet to be demonstrated that "six units every five years" means anything more than a routine hurdle to the individual teacher. This prescription assumes that gathering college or university units is the only road to increased competence. Meeting such mindless requirements lulls too many teachers into feeling comfortable with their professional growth. (After all, they "have met the requirements.") The most that can be said for such a prescription is that it guarantees a clientele for higher education.

When full professional status is reached and the individual is released from the state's control, the individual should be stimulated, supported, and encouraged to tailor-make her or his own professional growth plan. If the individual chooses to seek another certificate, she or he reenters the state-regulated stream—a stream the course of which is determined, ideally, by the individual's peers, those subject to certification statutes.

Full professional status has been in vogue for management personnel in education for many years. Once school administrators have achieved the top management certificate, renewal requirements are seldom imposed by the state—mute testimony, perhaps, to the power of school administrators. It is time to establish that recognizing full professional status in other education roles is equally meritorious.

Teacher organizations, districts, state agencies, and higher education should collaborate on individually tailor-made continuing development plans, site-specific plans, districtwide plans, and state plans. Without recognition that continuing development costs money, time, and energy and without willingness to provide for continuing development within the structure of the school day, continued talk and writing are mere intellectual masturbation—without issue.

Teacher organizations should be strengthening their programs to achieve this recognition. Districts need to recognize that imposition of district regulations is fruitless, resulting too often in perfunctory conformity, without substance. States need to recognize that straightjackets produce resentment, ingenious ways to survive in spite of them, and little substantive change.

As for higher education, it will persist in making its own determination of needs and offering a smorgasbord of on-campus lectures, and it will continue to complain about the "credit chasers" who drag their tired bodies into college classrooms for 7:00–9:30 P.M. sessions, but who fail to modify their practices in the "real world" of their classrooms. The academic departments, for their part, will persist in refusing to make meaningful advanced classes in the disciplines available when teachers can attend them and will thus fail to serve what could be, in a time of declining enrollments, a substantial clientele. Recognition of the value of experiences other than university classes should be sought by teacher organizations. For example, teacher organizations could help their members obtain the support necessary to participate in intensive, short-term studies in the disciplines outside the university framework. Teachers spend thousands of their own dollars on tuition and fees in their everlasting search for a "magic bullet," a new technique or idea to help Johnny learn to read better. Their hope springs eternal that trekking back to campus, running in the rain or snow from remote parking lots to college classrooms, will yield some answers to the learning problems that they encounter in their own classrooms. The tragedy is that they seek answers in the wrong places, for the most part. Experimentation with their teaching is not encouraged by regimentation, lectures, and overly generalized solutions. Yet analytical, experimental approaches to teaching certainly hold more promise than the didactic, teacher-talk practices documented by many observers. Higher education's continuing to focus on campus-based, undergraduate preparation merely perpetuates the conventional wisdom (even more so now, with only a small fraction of graduates obtaining employment) because even the highly skillful, experimentally inclined neophyte finds survival to be the main objective, and survival too often means not rocking the boat. Change, if it is to come, will come through major new and different approaches to continuing development.

What is "in-service" education?

Why try to define a term that has never been useful anyway? Why try to breathe life into a term that is derogatory?

I am reminded of a sign I used to pass on the way to the place where I often worked during the summers when I was in high school. It was a large sign, beautifully lettered, with a handsome picture in the center. It read:

REGISTERED JERSEY BULL: IN-SERVICE. "In-service"—doing it to others. The common connotations are uncomplimentary. The term should be dropped from the lexicon of any organization or entity that hopes to build a future among public school teachers. It carries too many negative loadings to be "reconceptualized" into respectability. Even the giant National Education Association has not used "in-service" in the names of its divisions or departments. NEA, with several state organizations in its wake, has chosen "professional development."

"In-service" is a meaningless term. It fails to mark any watershed.

If "in-service" means "after starting service," it differentiates in no meaningful way. Any person who teaches trumpet at home on Saturdays for pay or any person who teaches ballet to the neighborhood kids in the family garage has started teaching: Are these persons "in-service"? Sunday school teachers, instructional aides, paraprofessionals, and others by whatever title "teach." Are they "in-service," too?

A teacher preparing for a credential authorizing managerial functions is "in-service" as a teacher, but "preservice" as an administrator. Yet when this teacher participates as a member of the negotiations team, for example, and makes what are clearly managerial decisions on allocation of district funds, is the teacher not "in-service" as an administrator—i.e., performing one of the functions of a manager? Likewise, when a teacher evaluates an aide, is the teacher "preservice" as an administrator, or "in-service"?

The point is that if "in-service" education means education "while in or after beginning service," the term is so vague as to be useless. It fails to mark any watershed on this dimension.

If "in-service" means "after licensure," it cannot be applied to those teachers who do not hold licenses: college teachers, private school teachers, private trade school teachers in many cases, and many, many others. In some states, "teachers" in publicly supported children's centers "teach" with no license of any kind. The term fails to mark any watershed on this dimension.

If "in-service" is intended to distinguish more sophisticated studies from less sophisticated ones, it also does not serve. What is beginning or preparatory, naive or sophisticated for one is the opposite for another.

There is no definable line between "preservice" and "in-service." "Preservice" and "in-service" education are activities on the same continuum. No single point of demarcation can set one off from the other. Many people teach without "preservice." If there is no "preservice," "in-service" becomes double-think.

No dimension reveals itself along which use of the term makes consistent and accurate distinctions. Not only that—the term is derogatory, has negative connotations, and fails to point toward constructive future developments. The first task of "reconceptualization" may be to decide to drop the term.

To advocate continued connections between certification and "in-service" education is merely to advocate perpetuation of conventional wisdoms. Certification agencies typically think in terms of laundry lists of course

titles and magic numbers (six units every five years). Allowing such agencies to control anything beyond qualifications for issuance of a certificate (and maybe not that) is contrary to the effort to build a new kind of organization or a new sense of professionalism among teachers. It would perpetuate the practice of placing responsibility for continuing development at the most remote level possible—a state agency. It would contribute to further atrophy of organizational and professional processes by removing the need to be concerned.

Typical "reasons" for using certification to compel continuing development are "keeping *teachers* up to date," "assuring continued competence (assuring that teachers haven't slipped)," and "increasing competence." State agency regulations are ineffective for these purposes. Such matters are best handled by the individual, the site faculty, and the district faculty. Assignment of responsibility closer to the point of application would make it possible to tailor continuing development programs to specific needs and desires. Continuing development, once certification qualifications are met, is strictly an employment matter, not a certification matter.

So what does this mean to a collaborative effort to reconceptualize "in-service" education? It means that the term should be thrown out, to start. Then, a new term should be used for a new concept. It should be either *continuing personnel development* or *continuing professional development.* But there should be no hurry to affix a permanent label because teacher organizations are not yet clear about where they are going: whether toward the traditional union model or toward development of a new model such as that described briefly above. If they choose the union of civil servants, "continuing *personnel* development" would be appropriate. If they choose the new professional model, "continuing *professional* development" would be more suitable.

Next, all connections between certification and whatever results from putting the appropriate adjective between "continuing" and "development" should be severed. If the union model is sought, the union's interests are not best served by having conditions for continued employment of members dictated from on high. The union should control the training processes. If the other model is chosen, members have a very great stake in maintaining their level of public support by maintaining and increasing the quality of services and—equally important—helping the public understand that these services are being maintained and improved. Public confidence is the key.

Teacher organizations also have a very great stake in protecting their members from competition with the unqualified. They are not discharging this responsibility very well at the present time. If they aspire to professional status, this responsibility must be elevated in priority.

A key factor in reconceptualization of continuing personnel/professional development, then, seems to be clear. Break out of the conventional wisdoms! Focus on processes—not laundry lists, magic numbers, and other nostrums. Assign responsibility where it can be discharged effectively, and demand accountability.

This is not a mere matter of power struggle. It is a matter of survival of a

great American contribution to civilization—the public school system. If a major impact is to be made on reformation of the schools, and public confidence is to be thereby regained, it must be done through post-certification continuing professional development of the two million practitioners presently in the public schools. Such a task deserves the best efforts of teachers, teacher organizations, school districts, school administrators, higher education personnel and institutions, and state agencies. Do we have the vision and the tenacity to direct our resources toward this end?

FOOTNOTE

1. Kinney, L. B. *Certification in Education.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964. p. 131.

7

CONTINUING TEACHER EDUCATION: A COMMENTARY

Wendell C. Allen

These thoughts about a strategy for development of continuing teacher education were prepared following review of Chapter 5 by Patricia A. Orrange and Mike Van Ryn, "Agency Roles and Responsibilities in In-Service Education," and Chapter 6 by J. Alden Vanderpool, "Relationships Between Certification and 'In-Service' Education."

I speak of a strategy for development of continuing teacher education because I believe there is need of a framework for ordering the interests and resources of the several agencies that have the primary responsibility for teacher education. These agencies are colleges and universities, professional associations, and school administrations. The task is difficult and is not eased by the fact that the major institutional responsibility of each of these agencies is not teacher education. This fact has been true of colleges and universities since the passage of teachers colleges, and it has always been true for professional associations and school administrations. However, the primary institutional concerns of these three agencies are the foundation for their interest in continuing education as well as the basis of the extent of their commitment to change efforts.

I think of a strategy as a conceived mode for formulating goals, determining focus, clarifying issues, relating the agencies, appraising the context, timing and ordering events, and rationalizing differences. Although a strategy is goal oriented, comprehensive, and capable of being expressed as a framework for orderly or even staggered and piecemeal development, the essence of a strategy should be an interdependent, decentralized but organized process that provides for the responsible involvement of each participating agency in ways and to the extent that they together agree are appropriate.

As yet, I have made no reference to the state and its role, which I consider to be of a different order from the roles of colleges and universities, professional associations, and school administrations. I take no exception generally to Orrange and Van Ryn's listing of state activities. However, I think it is helpful to think of the state education agency, or any commission charged by the state with responsibility for governance of teacher education, as having a role inherently different from the roles of the agencies that share the operating responsibility for teacher education. If one thinks of the operating agencies as a consortium, the state is not a member. The state needs to be a facilitator in a variety of ways, but above all, it should be an ensurer of a process of continuing teacher education—a process that has integrity, includes quality control, and serves the needs of

the school curriculums and the students as well as the professional growth needs of individuals. The state role, as I see it, includes the onus of positive leadership in the formulation of strategy that makes desirable change a continuous process rather than a periodic and traumatic alteration of artificial standards—a continuous process that encourages the development and use of new knowledge and improved practice as well as the formulation of desirable organizational, structural, and financial change.

Vanderpool has adequately detailed the shortcomings of certification as a vehicle for achieving multiple objectives, such as initial and continuing education of professional school personnel, control of personnel assignments, and determination of salaries. He has reminded us also of L. B. Kinney's perception that states generally attempt to make certification serve civil service functions. Vanderpool recognizes that certification as an instrument of state policy is not likely to disappear in the near future. In view of this, I would suggest discarding the traditional kind of certification standards, with which we are all familiar, and replacing them with process standards. In this way, through certification regulations that focus on the processes of preparation and the relationships of responsible operating agencies, the state establishes the ground rules for consortium development of preparation programs. Such standards should include criteria for development of preparation programs that, while focused on individuals, are also responsive to the needs of school programs of instruction. This approach, this strategic mode if you will, permits—nay, conceives of—other necessary changes evolving under timely pressure from consortium participants: for example, changes in the extrinsic-reward and course-credit systems and also in the crucial matters of staffing patterns and differentiated professional responsibilities.

With respect to the beginning years in a professional role, Vanderpool effectively illustrates the inadequacy of the customary initial or provisional certificate as a vehicle for ensuring adequate completion of so-called basic professional preparation. I suggest, however, that the genuine weakness of this approach in most settings is the result of several conditions—among them, the complete tie of continuing preparation to college courses and credits and the lack of a coordinated and preferably consortium approach to planning the preparation with the beginning professional. None of the problems in developing a creative continuing education experience with the individual during her or his first few years in a professional role should be beyond the capacity of a consortium. Thus, certification does not appear to be the major obstacle here; rather, its application is faulty. At a time when teacher education is finally being recognized as a continuum, I believe it is helpful to have a somewhat special focus on preparation during the first few years of professional experience. At present, there appears to be value in recognizing completion of this phase of the continuum with a final certificate.

Equally important is the need to put special focus on long-term continuing education. A rationale and a process need to be provided that not only recognize the individual's primary responsibility for continuous growth as a professional, but also make ample provision for school curricular needs. In this third phase of the continuum, as in the first two, the op-

portunity for professional associations to make a strong and positive contribution is tremendous. The third phase awaits creative approaches that, should they evolve, will do much to enhance professionalism in education. Here again, the consortium structure provides the vehicle for marshalling the expertise and resources of all the agencies.

Orrange and Van Ryn have taken the position that continuing education should be "an integral part of the total school program" and that the "ideal situation would incorporate in-service education into the school system's total instructional design." They add that "Teachers working as faculty units or teams could more readily . . . solve total school or individual classroom problems." I think it significant that their views gain support from recent studies of successful teaching and successful schools, as reported by G. L. McDaniels in a speech in November 1974, which I would like to quote in part:

Characteristics of Successful Teaching

Major education evaluations in the United States recently completed indicate that successful teaching is mission-oriented teaching, that is, teaching which is coherently designed to have specific effects. Furthermore, while the teacher is critical, the effects are multiplied by the supportive involvement of the entire school community.

A pattern appears to be emerging for a successful teaching environment. It is a setting in which the mission—in most cases the long-range aims of education—is understood and supported by the teacher, by the school, and by the community. The school goals are clearly defined and accepted by all concerned. Acceptance of the goals gives the school a sense of purpose. It is demonstrated in the classroom organization, activities, and attitudes directed toward the accomplishment of the goals; it is demonstrated in teacher inservice education; it is demonstrated in the purchase of materials which honestly reflect the goals; and in the allotments of time sufficient for the tasks by which the goals may be achieved.

Articulated Goals

It is not unreasonable that articulated goals are important. If you know where you are going, you get there more quickly. These successful classrooms appear to have this common characteristic. The academic objectives are clearly defined and specific; for example, "to teach decoding to non-readers," rather than "to improve children's life chances through enhanced self-concept and mastery of basic skills." The teachers, the administrators, and the parents understand the goals and have a shared sense of their importance. Everyone in the school works on the same goals in somewhat similar ways rather than in widely different ways.

Coherent Training and Materials

The success of any program lies largely in the hands of the teacher. The characteristic that is emerging from these studies of successful classrooms is that teachers in these settings have had specific training in the program with which they are working.

. . . The successful classrooms in these recent studies usually have highly developed materials, materials which encourage students to work

at their own rates of speed. In addition, the materials are clearly coherent in supporting the mission identified by the school.[1]

In summary, empirical data are suggesting that successful teaching is characterized by a commitment to coherent mission-oriented tasks. The teacher plays the key role, especially when training has been focused on the mission. Essential inservice education can now be conducted during school time because human resources in education are now plentiful, and because more teachers are now committed to make teaching a life-time career. In addition, the roles of both colleges and school systems in teacher preparation are becoming clear. Finally, time must be devoted to the accomplishment of the school's mission.[2]

I support the thesis that the school's instructional design should incorporate continuing education that is directly related to the needs of the instructional program. However, I question the wisdom of limiting the scope of planned and supported continuing education as Van Ryn does in his definition, which he calls a "narrow but entirely workable construct":

> Inservice education is that portion of professional development that should be publicly supported and includes a program of systematically designed activities planned to increase the competencies—knowledge, skills, and attitudes—needed by school personnel in the performance of their assigned responsibilities.

I suggest that the broader definition presented in the prospectus for this Workshop is necessary both for substantive reasons and to provide an adequate base for a comprehensive approach to continuing education. The definition should be sufficiently broad, I believe, to encompass the goal of the complete (compleat?) professional, the individual whose personal and professional growth never ceases. Although continuing education that is an integral part of the school's instructional design may indeed stimulate individual professionals to undertake other professional-growth activities, I think that those activities would be limited unless provision for their planning and support is part of a comprehensive design for continuing education.

Earlier, I emphasized the need for a strategy for developing continuing education, which called for a process mode of planning and program operation involving the agencies that have a major interest in teacher education as well as the persons who are served by the program. These agencies would be the responsible and accountable parties. They would, however, be expected to secure, in addition, the appropriate involvement of citizens generally and community groups that have an interest in the preparation of teachers.

Long experience has demonstrated that teacher education needs the committed effort of school administrations and professional associations as well as colleges and universities. The level of commitment of these agencies to teacher education has a direct relationship to their assumption of responsibility. The obvious need for shared responsibility has forced the attempt to share control, to undertake the difficult task of achieving a mutual sharing in decision making about the nature of programs, about responsibilities, and

about evaluation. In this early period of experience with collaboration in teacher education, I believe that the essential element has been shown to be mutual respect for the views as well as the rights, interests, and responsibilities of participants in the process.

In a 1974 paper, I noted some of the rewards, satisfactions, and values that appear to result from collaborative effort, as follows:

- Mutual commitment tends to stimulate efforts to resolve differences among participants. A climate develops in which joint planning, [rational] organization, logical allocation of resources, and efficient program operation are encouraged.
- The time and energy spent in collaboration increases mutual respect among participants, fosters openness and ready feedback, and leads to a realistic approach in decision making. The facts and reasons for positions taken, the actual extent of resources available, and the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and priorities of participants are revealed in the processes of planning, decision making, and program operation.
- Authority tends to be established by competence rather than by position, status, or prestige. Policy and program decisions tend to be made on the basis of professional assessment of the merits of various approaches.
- Thoughtful and thorough examination of issues and operational situations is a usual feature of collaborative planning, and collaboration generally enlarges the circle of active participants.
- Collaboration generally results in the making of management decisions and the delegation of responsibility among agencies and individuals on the basis of competence and expertise, rather than power, position, or traditional practice.
- Participants' sense of responsibility is promoted by the openness of collaborative processes. Mutual assessment and self-evaluation become virtually automatic features much as in a competency-based preparation program.
- Collaboration in teacher preparation enhances the likelihood that provisions for internal and external evaluation of programs and their management will be helpful and thorough. The firm commitment of participants promotes their insistence on evaluation processes that will lead to program improvement; it is not likely that evaluation which is inefficient or unrelated to the realities of program settings will be tolerated.

Obviously, collaboration among colleges, professional associations, and school administrations will produce many changes in teacher education, and these will depend on the decisions made together by the groups. These changes can be taken in stride, however, because they will be planned and agreed upon by those participating. Collaboration means a sharing of power, sharing in the planning, organization, operation, and evaluation of programs, and sharing in the commitment of resources.[3]

Orrange and Van Ryn have noted some of the difficulties encountered with collaboration in New York State—among them, the matter of relative representation in certain situations. An interesting point about collaboration is that no move can be made without agreement among the participating agencies. When this process is lived with in a consortium, it seems to make the matter of numerical dominance moot. This is not to say, however, that by agreement there is no assignment of leadership roles for various aspects of preparation programs, based on recognition of expertise.

I was reminded recently of some of the qualities and values that occupy a central place in the hearts and minds of all people, and most certainly in the hearts and minds of those whose main concern is teaching. The following is a partial quotation from Robert Muller's guest editorial in a recent issue of *Saturday Review*. Its title is "U Thant the Buddhist." If you haven't read it, I think you too will appreciate its message.

> One day U Thant received a group of Buddhists from various countries. The spokesman, an articulate young American Buddhist, pleaded with U Thant to stay on as Secretary-General:
>
> "We need an ethical man at the helm of the United Nations in this troubled time. As Buddhists we are extremely happy that you occupy this high position, and we feel that it is your duty toward humanity to stay."
>
> I regret that I did not have a tape recorder to register U Thant's answer, which was one of the fullest presentations of his philosophy. He began by giving his visitors a Buddhist interpretation of the U.N. Charter. . . . Then, having expounded the basic harmony between his beliefs and his duties, he commented on his daily work:
>
> "I wake up in the morning as a Buddhist and a Burmese and meditate at least for a short while in order to set my work, actions, and thoughts into the right perspective. When I return home in the evening, I become again a Burmese and a Buddhist: I exchange my Western clothes for the Burmese longyi and reintegrate my family, which has retained fully the Burmese and Buddhist ways of life.
>
> "But when I enter my office in Manhattan, you will understand that I must forget that I am a Burmese and a Buddhist. One of my duties is to receive many people—diplomats, political men, scientists, writers, journalists, and my U.N. colleagues. Most of my visitors have something specific to say to me; they wish to leave with me a message, a deeply felt belief or an idea. In order to receive and fully understand what my human brother has to say to me, I must open myself to him, I must empty myself of myself. . . ."
>
> U THANT WAS RIGHT: Man can learn so much by simply opening himself to others, by lowering the barriers of his self-sufficiency and infallibility. One is no longer entirely oneself, but a crossroads, an essence of others and consequently a profoundly balanced and integrated member of the human race. Humility and meditation lead in the end to integrity. It is perhaps the clue to serenity in our bewildered, complex world. At the end of the meeting with the young Buddhist, the Secretary-General gently but firmly reiterated his decision not to seek reelection. "A younger man is now seated in the post."[4]

Finally, I would like to repeat the words of T. E. Andrews in concluding his editorial in the *CBTE Newsletter* of February 1974:

> Underlying the concept of collaboration is a value belief that decisions about teacher education (or even all education) can no longer rest with any single agency—parties affected by a system must be involved in the policy decisions affecting that system. And it is through this value screen that the problems and potentials of collaboration should be viewed.[5]

FOOTNOTES

1. McDaniels, G.L. "Successful Teaching and Successful Schools." Speech presented at the OECD Intergovernmental Conference on Teacher Policies, Paris, France, November 1974. pp. 1–3.
2. *Ibid.*, p. 5.
3. Allen, W. C. "Comments on Collaboration in Teacher Education." *CBTE Newsletter*, February 1974. p. 3.
4. Muller, R. "U Thant the Buddhist." (Editorial) *Saturday Review:* 5-6; January 25, 1975.
5. Andrews, T. E. Editorial. *CBTE Newsletter*, February 1974. p. 8.

8

LOOKING BACK AT THINKING AHEAD: 87 EDUCATORS IN SESSION

Margo Johnson

The two-and-a-half-day effort to reconceptualize in-service education was a *work*shop from start to finish, and collaboration was the prevailing mode of work. The 87 participants were nearly a microcosm of the education community—teachers, elected leaders and staff of teacher organizations, school administrators, state education agency personnel, higher education faculty, Teacher Corps leaders, federal agency officials, and one private foundation employee. They came from 14 states and the District of Columbia, the bulk of them concentrated in the home states of the teacher organizations that organized the Workshop—California, Georgia, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, and Washington. For most of the two-and-a-half days, they worked in 10 small groups (hereafter referred to individually as the *Ones*, the *Twos*, the *Threes* . . .) constituted to mirror closely the larger mix of people. Each group had a facilitator—participant, convener, liaison, resource, and process person, all in one. On one occasion, the participants regrouped for skull sessions with paper writers, and shortly before the Workshop ended, they assembled as state delegations to plan follow-up activities.

Participants came as educators-at-large, not as official representatives of agencies. This book as a whole is thus a rich collection of ideas to be tapped, not consummate marching orders for the rank-and-file.

Following is a composite of the recommendations made by the 10 groups, paraphrased to capture the diversity and breadth of ideas across groups. Many of the recommendations reflect considerable agreement among groups, but others have a narrower base, and a few were made by one group only.

1. Professional development must be viewed in three stages: preservice, initial teaching (one to five years), and "the long pull."
2. The stage for collaboration on in-service education should be set at the preservice level, with professional organizations, individual professionals, parents, and students having significant input there.
3. In-service education should be a collaborative effort among the agencies and groups that are involved in it/have vested interests in it/will be affected by it/are to benefit from it. These agencies and groups include, but are not limited to, professional organizations, state education agencies, local school boards, school administrators, higher education institutions, legislators, and clients (citizens, parents, and students).
4. Collaboration should be facilitated, not mandated—rewarded, not re-

quired. Sanction for the *process* of collaboration should be sought from the state legislature or another appropriate authority.

5. Collaboration should involve parity in decision making and may involve differentiation of responsibility for implementation. To be effective, it must also involve mutual respect for power and points of view, trust, and a strong commitment.
6. There should be collaborative efforts to look at ways to involve parents more effectively in the educational process.
7. In-service education should be recognized as an essential element of the educational process.
8. In-service education should include all school personnel, nonprofessionals as well as professionals.
9. In-service education should include educators at all levels—teachers, administrators, county officers, higher education personnel, and state department personnel.
10. Educators at all levels should be provided the opportunity for internships or exchanges within the educational system.
11. In-service education should be based on personnel needs/school program needs/student needs.
12. In-service education should interface with curriculum development and instructional improvement.
13. In-service education programs should be locally planned by the people to be affected.
14. In-service education should be built into the regular school day.
15. In-service education should be field based.
16. Alternative inducements/rewards for in-service education should be explored, and voluntary participation in in-service education should be encouraged.
17. In-service education should reflect the same principles that educators endorse for students—e.g., individualized instruction and freedom to choose among alternatives.
18. The changing role of the teacher should be recognized in designing in-service education.
19. In reconceptualizing in-service education, attention should be given to research and development opportunities—e.g., validating existing procedures and learning about change and renewal.
20. In-service education should not be used to finance deficits in other university programs.
21. Alternatives for the support of in-service education, including reallocation of existing resources, should be sought.
22. In-service education should be supported by long-term hard money.
23. In-service education should be funded in large part by the state.
24. In-service education should be elevated in priority at local, state, and national levels.
25. The need for in-service education should be documented/demonstrated.
26. As a first step in establishing a legal framework for governance of in-service education, each state should develop a public policy statement supporting the need of educators at all levels for in-service education,

the principle of parity in decision making, and the principle of local unit autonomy.

27. A state support system should be developed to promote and support in-service education.
28. A network should be established to disseminate information about in-service education.
29. There should be a national agency to coordinate in-service education.

The groups had wide latitude to set their own agendas. Various options were discussed with the facilitators at a session before the Workshop—among them, picking up on one or more of the purposes set down for the Workshop and/or challenging the basic assumptions. Many of these options were followed, but variously and with different emphases. The tangible products were not only recommendations, but also more precise definitions of terms, revised assumptions, models for governance, models of design and delivery systems, conceptual schemes, follow-up plans at the state level, and questions needing further thought and discussion. Because the recommendations are best understood in relation to these other products, the balance of this chapter attempts to explain and relate all of the products.

A first task for most groups was defining one of two terms—*in-service education* and *collaboration*. Clearly, the organizers' definition of in-service education was not generally acceptable. Many groups either took the definition and dropped the term, using a "more palatable" descriptor such as *professional development, continuing staff development,* or *"X"*; or took the term and dropped the definition, developing their own. J. Alden Vanderpool's unkind words about "in-service" apparently influenced the thinking of some groups. So, too, did E. Brooks Smith's and Patricia A. Orrange and Mike Van Ryn's narrower conceptions of in-service education.

More than any other group, the *Nines* sought to "get a handle on" the term *in-service education*. Their discussion first generated a more comprehensive term, *professional growth*, which they used to describe "any activity that might improve the effectiveness of educational workers and that incorporates informal or formal settings, is freely chosen or mandated, and is directly or indirectly job related." They represented their definition visually as a cube, the three dimensions of which corresponded to the three aspects of professional growth in the definition—that is, type of setting, degree of choice, and degree of relationship to job. They then observed that the cube provided "a frame of reference for classifying any given professional-growth activity in any given set of circumstances." Also, they noted, it contained a segment corresponding to what is commonly called in-service education, but which the *Nines* called "conscious delivery systems for professional growth related to a given school system, school, or group of educational workers."

The *Threes* took a novel approach, suggesting, in effect, that *professional development* be the comprehensive term and that it be viewed in three stages: preservice, initial teaching (one to five years), and the "long pull." Thereafter, they used the phrase *continuing staff development* apparently to characterize the latter two stages.

The term *collaboration* posed different problems. Workshop organizers did not provide a definition of this term, as they did with in-service

education. They simply posited collaboration as the essential mode for reconceptualizing in-service education. Several of the papers provided some real-life descriptions of collaboration and discussed some principles that guide it, but for many participants, collaboration was initially a skeleton of a concept. Definitions of the verb *collaborate* from Webster's *New Collegiate Dictionary* are "to work jointly with others esp. in an intellectual endeavor; to cooperate with or willingly assist an enemy of one's country and esp. an occupying force; to cooperate with an agency or instrumentality with which one is not immediately connected." If any concept of collaboration was shared by all participants at the outset, it was probably the fundamental idea expressed in those definitions—working together or cooperating. (No doubt, a few participants also thought they were cooperating with the enemy.)

It seems safe to observe that at the conclusion of the Workshop, collaboration had a richer, if still not precise, meaning for most participants. Several groups spent some time discussing its connotations and seeking agreement on a common conception of it. For example, the *Tens* concluded, "Collaboration [on in-service education] is a process that differs from cooperation or compliance to regulations because it requires a strong sense of commitment, based on trust, to make in-service education work." The *Sevens*, on the other hand, backed away from the word *collaboration*, wondering if it suggested parity; instead, they referred to *joint governance*. The word *coalition* was also used by some participants as an alternative to *collaboration;* however, no definition of *coalition* was offered, and the word itself does not appear in any group reports or notes.

Definitions completed, the groups turned to other matters. The products of their efforts fall into three broad categories. The first comprises products dealing with the concept of collaboration—structure, function, participating agencies, operating principles, etc. All groups unhesitatingly supported the basic idea of collaboration—working together. Most were clearly referring to collaboration on all of in-service education, but some modifications were introduced by a few. The *Threes* recommended that the stage for collaboration be set at the preservice level. The *Fours* urged that the fifth-year requirement be collaboratively developed, implying that collaboration on other phases of in-service education should have a support function—e.g., developing criteria for evaluation of in-service programs and facilitating individual development of short- and long-term goals. For the *Tens*, collaboration would be limited to—

> . . . those aspects of professional development that directly affect instruction and are conceived as part of the professional's work, excluding certification, personal career development, and general professional education except when a given state does not have a certification and licensure commission responsible for the review of undergraduate and graduate teacher education programs.

Further on, the *Tens* suggested that collaborative efforts give attention to ways of involving parents more effectively in the education process. The *Sevens* recommended joint governance of in-service education, but then asked what elements of it require joint governance.

The groups were about evenly divided between those that were ready to name the types of agencies and parties to be involved in collaboration and those that preferred to set a criterion for participation. Agencies and parties specifically named were professional organizations, higher education institutions, school administrators, school boards, state education agencies, citizens, parents, students, and legislators. The criterion for participation was variously expressed as those agencies and parties that are involved in in-service education, those that have vested interests in it, those that will be affected by it, or those that are to benefit from it.

It would be false to conclude that the division represented a basic disagreement among the groups. Rather, the hesitance to name agencies probably reflected a belief, expressed in several reports, that appropriate parties to collaboration will vary from state to state and hence cannot be prescribed without reference to a particular state. In other words, collaboration "must be home grown."

Six of the groups dealt with basic principles of collaboration. The *Ones* and the *Twos* agreed that there must be equality in decision making. The *Twos* went further, concurring with Smith's proposition of parity in decision making and differentiation of responsibility for implementation. The *Fives* recommended shared decision making without indicating the relative size of shares, and the *Eights* recommended collaborative decision making without indicating their interpretation of the word *collaborative*. "Collaboration implies cooperation among equals . . . ," the *Sixes* declared, but they could not agree on the extent of authority to be granted each equal. A somewhat novel position was taken by the *Tens*, who proposed that roles be negotiated within a basic collaborative framework, implying parity at least in negotiation, if not in its outcomes.

The *Ones*, the *Sixes*, and the *Tens* extended their discussions of principles into some talk about elements of effective collaboration—among them, mutual respect, strong commitment, trust, awareness of political realities, and something at stake for all parties. Further, the *Sixes* noted, "Collaboration does not just happen; it must be planned for, supported, and given status."

Four groups dealt with a legal sanction for collaboration, three in some depth and one in brief. The *Sixes* agreed that "sanction of the process of collaboration by the legislature or another appropriate authority should be sought" and also (with one vigorous dissenter) that "a decision-making body should be established that has real authority under guidelines that are written in terms of process and goals." The *Twos* agreed only on a first step toward legal sanction—development of "a statewide public policy statement . . . issued by the state board of education and/or the state legislature" supporting the principles of parity, local unit autonomy, and in-service education for educators at all levels. The *Tens* proposed that legislation "be developed in each state to create appropriate state and local authorities that are granted by statute the responsibility to plan and implement a jointly designed scheme for in-service education." The *Eights* simply recommended "a collaborative decision-making process that is established in law."

The second broad category of group products deals with in-service

education per se—on whose needs it should be based; for whom, by whom, and how it should be planned; when it should take place; how participants should be motivated/rewarded; and how in-service education should be financed.

The *Twos* and the *Threes* shared a conviction that needs assessment is basic to in-service education, but neither group indicated whose needs it had in mind. Five other groups were explicit on this subject, but not of the same opinion: The *Sevens* said the needs of educational personnel, the *Fours* and *Sixes* said the needs of students, the *Fives* said the needs of the school program, and the *Eights* said both the needs of the system and the needs of the individual.

It may be that the differences of opinion were only superficial, in that implied in the needs of the school program are the needs of students and the needs of personnel, and vice versa. Indeed, although the *Fives* specified school program needs in their recommendation, their notes read: "Needs assessment—school, community, student." However, to say that the groups were essentially in agreement, without more substantial evidence, would be unwarranted. Suffice it to point out the importance of being precise when needs are discussed—precise about whose needs, how and by whom they will be determined, and how they relate to other needs and in-service education generally.

Two groups stated unequivocally that in-service education should include *all* school personnel, nonprofessionals as well as professionals. One of these two groups and three others endorsed in-service education for educators at all levels. Extending this latter idea, the *Tens* recommended that there be opportunities for internships or exchanges within the educational system; for example, state department personnel might periodically spend some time in local districts, and administrators might do stints in teacher organizations. The *Sevens* shared one or the other position, depending on how one interprets their recommendation that "in-service education programs make provision for all educational personnel." Some sentiment for both positions was expressed by the *Sixes:* Their report asserts: "Professional development should apply to all participants—higher education, administration, regional agencies, county officers, teachers, etc."; and their notes record that professional development "should apply to the total educational spectrum: teachers, administrators, aides, etc."

Four groups shared a belief that in-service education should be planned by the people most directly affected, and various recommendations were made regarding its actual design. Like Smith, the *Sixes* thought that in-service education should interface with curriculum development. The *Fours* recommended that "adults in schools as professionals experience preparation in a manner consistent with the way children ought to be helped to learn in school." Echoing this sentiment in part, the *Threes* asserted: "Continuing staff development will take many forms and use many resources—to achieve a variety of different purposes, in ways appropriate to the learning styles of different *individuals.*" In a similar vein, the *Sixes* noted that "freedom for participants to select among learning experiences is critical." On a different subject, the *Threes* sought recognition of the research and development opportunities that in-service education offers. Still

another dimension of design was addressed by the *Tens*, who recommended that in-service education be field based—that is, based in the schools rather than in colleges and universities.

The *Threes* asserted that "the changing role of the teacher should be recognized in designing in-service education." The basic idea here—recognizing changing roles—was, of course, one of the seven Workshop assumptions, but a broader idea was being expressed in that assumption—recognition of changing roles not just in design, but also in governance, conceptualization, and support. The assumption itself was revised by two other groups—the *Twos*, who stated that "professional development of educators needs to be consistent with the changing role of educators," and the *Fours*, who declared that "In-service education needs to be reconceptualized to be consistent with the changing roles of school personnel, college personnel, and other parties to collaborative efforts."

On the issue of when in-service education should take place, the *Eights* and the *Tens* made their positions quite clear: It should be built into the normal school schedule as part of the teacher's job. For the *Tens*, this position was a logical outgrowth of their conception of in-service education as "those aspects of professional development that directly affect instruction and are conceived as part of the professional's work. . . ." However, the *Eights* were working from a broader view of in-service education as addressing "the needs of the system" and "the needs of the individual." The *Twos* appeared to concur with the *Eights* and *Tens*, listing "time available for participation" as one basic characteristic of a conceptual model for professional development. The *Sevens* were less assertive, asking if it is possible to incorporate time for in-service education in the school calendar. The *Fives* may have had in-service education on school time in mind when they asserted that "in-service education [should] be recognized as an essential element of the educational process," but only they know for sure.

The five other groups apparently did not deal with this issue, but almost all groups addressed related matters—incentives/rewards for in-service education and financing of in-service education. The *Ones* and *Fours* asserted that alternatives to present incentives and rewards must be explored. The *Threes* aired their concerns differently, but seemed to touch down at the same point, listing, like the *Ones*, some alternatives that emerged from group discussion—for example, (from the *Ones*) district support of in-service activities through policies, rewards for innovative teaching, (from the *Threes*) mini-grants, and local and professional recognition. Casting the issue as voluntary vs. mandatory participation, the *Eights* agreed on the need to create a climate "that values and encourages" voluntary participation. The *Tens*, too, were concerned about existing incentives; however, they related this issue to the previous one, explaining that if in-service education were considered part of the job, incentives like salary increments for courses would not be necessary and other kinds of incentives could be used, such as "grants given to individual teachers or groups for specific kinds of in-service activities." Another wrinkle, and an important one, was introduced by the *Sevens*, whose interest in alternative rewards encompassed "those who deliver" as well as those who participate in in-service education.

The financing of in-service education received attention from seven groups. The need for "hard money" was either implied or expressly stated by four of them—"hard" in the sense of an assured source and a continuous supply. The *Fours* and the *Fives* looked to the state as financial benefactor, although the *Fours* also sought "an investment of time and money from all parties to a collaborative effort." Perhaps agreeing with Stanley H. Jeffers and Dolores McDaniels, the *Sixes* and the *Sevens* thought that reallocation of existing funds for in-service education was basic to any financial scheme. Speaking specifically to federal support, the *Twos* recommended that the U.S. Office of Education "identify existing funds for professional development and develop a common focus for them." The *Tens* expressed a different concern about financing, stating flatly that "in-service education should *not* be used to finance deficits in other university programs."

The third category of group products deals with practical strategies and mechanisms for improving in-service education. Heeding the advice of Orrange and Van Ryn, four groups underscored the importance of documenting the need for in-service education; two of these groups revealed their intended uses of the data—the *Ones*, "to develop understandings with legislators," and the *Sixes*, to make the case with the public. In another context, the *Sixes* stressed the importance of elevating professional development in priority at local, state, and national levels through the combined efforts of agencies represented at the Workshop. The idea of exchanging information through a communications network was broached by four groups, and two groups recommended an institutionalized support system. More expansive in their thinking, the *Fives* called for a national agency to coordinate in-service education and specified various responsibilities for it, from data collection and dissemination to program funding and evaluation.

It is difficult to gracefully close a summary of the work of 10 groups (87 people) reviewing their own ideas vis-à-vis those of the authors in Chapters 1–7. It is probably sufficient to note that what they reported is important because it represents a cross-section of thought and opinion about reconceptualizing in-service education.

9

NEXT STEPS

Roy A. Edelfelt

Obviously, rethinking in-service education can only be dealt with in part through a volume like this one. The need is for action steps, and they must be based on recommendations that grow out of a careful examination of the state of the art and the variety of problems and issues faced by professionals who believe changes are needed. The previous pages attend in part to some of those topics. This last chapter is one man's reflections on next steps.

A first point of reflection is terminology. I prefer the terms *continuing education* or *professional development* to *in-service education.* That preference develops from arguments like J. Alden Vanderpool's in Chapter 6. A further point about terminology—and definitions—is the need for a clear distinction between the education of provisionally certified teachers and the education of fully certified teachers. When continuing education is for some a testing period for full certification and for others designed entirely to contribute to further professionalization, confusion and conflict are generated. If a distinction can be made, and if distinctive terminology can be applied, there should be a great deal more clarity in the questions that must be faced to reconceptualize continuing education.

A second point of reflection is a continuing theme of these chapters: the need for attention to legal-organizational, conceptual, design, and support frameworks for professional development programs. I am persuaded that such frameworks must be developed at the state level to undergird operational programs. I am equally persuaded that such frameworks cannot be prescribed; rather, they must be determined within each state by the existing power structure.

What then can be probed to contribute to the building of such frameworks? First, the essential elements of all four frameworks can be examined, and second, some basic questions can be raised to guide the development of improved concepts and designs for continuing education.

The following may serve as a checklist for assessing the presence or absence of the essential elements of a continuing education program in a state.

THE BASIS AND STRUCTURE FOR DEVELOPMENT OF A CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAM WITHIN A STATE[1]

1. *A legal framework for organization:* Do state laws and regulations provide a basis for—
   a. Establishment of formal relationships and commitments among autonomous/independent agencies?

b. Planning and implementation by these agencies of various professional development programs to serve school, public, and agency needs and purposes?
c. Planning and carrying out by individuals of personal and professional growth activities?
d. Cooperative planning by individuals and agencies of professional development activities designed to meet their respective needs and purposes?

2. *A conceptual framework:* Is there a conceptual framework for the preparation of education personnel reflected in the laws, regulations, policies, and/or practices of the state legislature, the state education agency, school administrations, higher education institutions, and teacher organizations that recognizes—
   a. Professional preparation as career long?
   b. A relationship between individual needs and goals and school program needs and purposes?
   c. Changing professional role patterns?
   d. The multiple roles of all professionals?
   e. The implications of changing and developing social conditions for school program and continuing education?
   f. The need for interrelated responsibilities and roles of the state education agency, school administrations, higher education institutions, teacher organizations, and the individual professional?
3. *A design framework:* Is there a comprehensive state design for professional development that provides for—
   a. Ordering of the relationships among the state education agency, school administrations, higher education institutions, teacher organizations, and the individual professional?
   b. Determination of continuing education needs of education personnel based on the personal and professional growth needs of the individual and the instructional program needs and purposes of the school?
   c. Collaborative planning and implementation of continuing education programs?
   d. A process for allocating responsibilities for program operation in the context of available expertise and other appropriate resources?
   e. A process for quality control of program administration and operation at all levels?
   f. Planning and creating of new and multiple designs for continuing education programs that are appropriate to meet the particular needs of various situations and people in local education programs?
4. *A support framework:* Is there a support framework for continuing education that provides for—
   a. Preparation related to state certification requirements?
   b. Preparation not related to state certification requirements?
   c. Preparation designed to meet school program needs and purposes?
   d. Preparation designed to meet the individual's personal and professional growth needs?

e. Preparation to meet the professional growth needs of individuals in different phases of their careers?
f. Preparation that is part of the total instructional program design?
g. Financial, logistical, physical, technological, and personnel support for professional development activities?

I dare not say much about the degree to which each of these provisions and conditions should exist because I do not know. But I am convinced that a dynamic, self-correcting program of professional development for all education personnel cannot exist without attention to the above components. When "neither the college or university nor the school district has embraced in-service education as a basic commitment" (p. 17), then some sanction for legitimacy must be developed.

Some argument developed during the review of these chapters about whether organizational or conceptual frameworks should be considered first. I hold that the organizational framework should take precedence. At the same time, it must be recognized that the four frameworks are interdependent and thus require some parallel consideration.

A final point on frameworks in general: If we admit at the outset that the whole of continuing education is largely undeveloped, then we can legitimately tolerate a few false starts. In other words, the critical elements of frameworks will need to be tested and modified as programs become operational.

DEVELOPING IMPROVED CONCEPTS AND DESIGNS FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION

Developing frameworks for organization and support is largely a political task. Political maneuvering frustrates many professionals who want to get on with the job of developing continuing education programs. A division of labor may therefore be in order. It is certain that conceptual schemes and program designs will be needed by those working in the political arena, particularly when evidence is required to support policy and fiscal change. Such development can proceed as long as all who are involved do not neglect the political arena, where sanction for program must be gained.

A desire to get on with program concepts and program designs was evident among the 87 educators who read and reacted to the chapters in this book. Their impatience with discussion of a grand scheme is understandable: There surely will be little progress if new concepts and designs are not developed. Yet it must be reiterated that reconceptualizing in-service education is not just a matter of changing the ways educators are helped to improve their skills and broaden their horizons. That *is* the central purpose. But unless the mechanisms are established to ensure conditions and circumstances, policies and regulations, and commitment and support for continuing education, changes and improvements are bound to be temporary. Progress will be dependent on special favors, temporary funding, or particularly energetic people.

Therefore, I contend that these chapters have begun at the appropriate place, questioning the status quo, suggesting a holistic approach, examining the roles of the agencies involved, and calling for changes in policy and governance. But there must also be action to develop better concepts and

new designs for in-service education. How can that be done heeding the recommendations of the previous chapter?

There are no easy answers to that question. An examination of new proposals and plans for continuing education at the local district level might begin by addressing the decision-making processes, the relationship of the plan to program improvement, the intended participants, the adequacy of resources, and the extent of commitment to teacher education. Again, guidelines in the form of questions may be most helpful.

Decision-Making Processes

- —Are decision-making processes based on collaboration (or cooperation or a coalition)?
- —What do these words mean?
- —Does collaboration imply parity?
- —Do the parties involved have an equal voice in decision making?
- —Who are the collaborating parties? School districts? Teacher organizations? Higher education institutions? Parents?
- —Have policies governing professional development been set or negotiated into a collective-bargaining contract?

Relationship to Program Improvement

- —Does continuing education interface with curriculum development and instruction improvement?
- —Is it based on the needs of teachers? Students? School program?
- —Is it built into the regular school day?
- —Does it reflect the changing role of the teacher?
- —Does it reflect the principles that educators endorse for students?

The Intended Participants

- —Are teachers and administrators provided for?
- —Are higher education and state department personnel included?
- —Are nonprofessional school personnel—e.g., teacher aides, cafeteria workers, clerical staff, and janitorial staff—provided for?

The Adequacy of Resources

- —Are resources adequate and stable?
- —Is there earmarked funding from state sources?
- —Is part of the local school budget designated for professional development?
- —Are resources in time, materials, and personnel provided on a continuing basis?
- —Are resources outside the school and school district—e.g., people, places, and things—used effectively?
- —Is professional development paid for by school district and state funds?

The Commitment to Teacher Education

- —Is teacher education seen as a continuum from preservice preparation to career-long professional development?

—To what extent is the interface between teacher education and curriculum and instruction improvement recognized?
—Are internships and exchanges provided for?
—Is continuing education related to research and development efforts internally and externally?
—Is continuing education used for research and development?
—Are continuing education needs documented/demonstrated regularly?
—Is there a productive teacher-organization–school–university partnership?
—Are the respective strengths of the teacher organization, the school, and the university capitalized in preservice and continuing education?
—Are there safeguards to minimize exploitation of one agency by the others?

IS THE PICTURE COMPLETE?

The discussion in this chapter is far from complete in charting the possibilities for next steps in continuing education. The focus has been on developing a holistic scheme and getting on with creating new local designs. These are to me the most important next steps.

Although a good deal was said in some chapters about the respective roles of school districts, teacher organizations, and higher education institutions, I have not given much attention to the latter two. Both have challenging jobs ahead. Teacher organization roles are new in so many ways that there is still much to determine. The roles of higher education institutions require major shifts. I have not discussed formal graduate study because it received almost no attention in the prior chapters. Yet graduate study in education will continue, and I hope it will improve. It may be incorporated into on-site professional development programs of the type discussed in these pages.

I have also not dealt with the political issues of current power shifts although they are underlying currents in most of the chapters—e.g., the emerging strength of teacher organizations and the creation of new agencies for professional governance in teacher education (standards and licensure commissions).

All of these neglected areas are obviously other "next steps." They will be addressed directly and subtly, probably in the actions that take place to secure a legitimacy for continuing education. How fast continuing education gets reconceptualized depends, I believe, on how adroitly and diplomatically educators of various stripes are ready and willing to move—more so, in fact, than on the public's willingness to endorse and support efforts we devise to improve programs for their children and youth.

FOOTNOTE

1. Most of the checklist was developed by Wendell C. Allen, friend, mentor, and former assistant superintendent of public instruction for teacher education in the state of Washington.

Appendix A

GUIDELINES WHICH SHOULD GIVE DIRECTION TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF PILOT PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CENTERS*

1. *The State of Michigan should recognize a responsibility to provide resources for the continuing professional development of educational workers who furnish instruction in our schools.*

   RATIONALE: A study at Columbia University a few years ago [that] reported the normal pattern for levels of teacher performance shows a steady increase during the first five years on the job, a leveling off during the next 15 years, and then a steady decline thereafter. This pattern of the life cycle of teachers is probably established because so little attention is paid to their continuing professional growth and development after they have once become licensed, tenured employees of a school system. It takes additional resources to provide these growth opportunities and public funds are needed to greatly expand these inservice program opportunities.

2. *The name chosen for these professional development efforts should describe the service being provided in order to avoid confusion with other agencies having dissimilar functions.*

   RATIONALE: The title applied to agencies charged with the professional development function originally was "Teacher Centers." This term is used to describe a variety of activities around this country and the interpretation of the meaning of the term is dependent upon the users' prior experience. Since the program is for inservice educational workers only, refers to a program concept, not a physical location, and in no way resembles many other agencies called "Teacher Center," the term "Professional Development Center" should cause much less confusion.

3. *Representation on governing structures for these professional development efforts shall include, but not necessarily be limited to, classroom teachers, school administrators and teacher education institutions in the service area. Representatives of these groups should be nominated or selected by their peers. Classroom teachers should comprise half the membership on any of the governing bodies.*

   RATIONALE: Governance of Professional Development Centers is a highly charged political issue. Teachers feel that in the past inservice activities have too often been planned by others for them. School administrators greatly fear union domination if programs are governed by teachers. Universities are concerned for their degree and course programs. The governing structure proposed allows input from those

*Presented to the State Advisory Council on Teacher Preparation and Professional Development, State of Michigan, in December 1974; adopted in a revised form, but without significant substantive change, in January 1975.

groups primarily concerned without majority control held by any one facet of the education profession. It is proposed that a state professional development advisory commission be appointed by the State Board of Education consisting of 12 members. Six of the members would be classroom teachers, two representatives of school administrators, two representatives of approved college or university teacher education institutions, one local or intermediate school district board [member], and one parent of a school age child or children. The same pattern of representation would also pertain to local governing structures in each center.

Nominations for appointment to the commission and boards would be made by organizations, institutions, and agencies representative of the categories of membership specified.

An effective professional development program must rely upon cooperation of teachers, local and intermediate school districts, colleges and universities, and Michigan Department of Education staff. Trust and faith that this cooperation can be achieved is basic to this total effort.

4. *The programs of professional development activities for inservice teachers shall be locally designed, flexible, and responsive to participants' needs for new knowledge, improved teaching strategies and management skills necessary to help every pupil reach his or her maximum potential. Questions of credits or degrees for participants, if appropriate, should be locally and cooperatively determined by the local Center and Colleges or Universities offering the instruction.*

   RATIONALE: To be most effective, each Professional Development Center should be free to develop an inservice program most appropriate to the unique needs of the area. No program developed on the statewide basis and handed down by a state agency can meet particular area requirements. In addition, greater involvement in planning locally is going to make the whole program much more acceptable to all parties concerned. College credit questions should be given consideration only after first focusing upon the most useful kinds of growth producing experiences.

5. *Educational workers should feel a responsibility to carry on activities which are designed primarily to enhance their personal capabilities and/or career advancement goals. Professional development funds made available to schools should be utilized to support activities which supplement those activities which have traditionally been related to an individual's personal growth program.*

   RATIONALE: Professional development programs should not replace the need for educational workers to have a personal responsibility to continue his or her professional growth. Additional college course work leading to continuing certification, advanced degrees, or personal professional development should still be the individual's responsibility. Center program activities should be directed at learning opportunities for youngsters in classrooms rather than at benefits which will accrue to individual teachers because of their participation. This, of course,

does not preclude parts of personal development programs coinciding with the broader professional development activities in Centers and reaching the goals of both programs simultaneously.

6. *It must be recognized that when a state legislative body appropriates funds for any program certain restrictions are appropriate and necessary. However, maximum flexibility should be maintained to insure a Professional Development Center's freedom to plan locally those activities the cooperating partners on local planning committees feel can be most beneficial.*

   RATIONALE: Local versus state control is an explosive political consideration in the operation of any program. Experience has shown that a greater willingness to accept responsibility for the success of a program is shown if planning authority is shared by those most directly concerned. More appropriate growth activities should also result.

7. *The freedom to plan programs locally shall not be inhibited in any way by the program funding mechanism.*

   RATIONALE: There is an old saying about those who control the purse strings also control the program. Cooperatively developed local programs should in no way be limited by excessive control being exercised by the legal agency through which funds are funneled.

8. *Commitment to the special needs of minorities and women shall be recognized in the plans and implementation of these professional development efforts.*

   RATIONALE: Equal opportunities for all need to be reaffirmed.

9. *Program activities should be related to research and curriculum development and shall encourage interaction of participants among districts to preclude parochialism, when possible.*

   RATIONALE: One of the priority needs among teachers is that new research findings and curriculum developments be communicated to teachers in service. Programs should be designed to carry out this function.

10. *Released time must be provided for teachers to engage in professional development activities.*

    RATIONALE: Teachers are already carrying heavy loads. It should not be expected that inservice development activities would be treated as an add-on.

11. *The initial Professional Development Centers should be viewed as pilot projects and enabling legislation for a network of Centers should be developed from the operational experience of the first Centers. Initial support should be given to two different Centers.*

    RATIONALE: The experience of the education community during the past decade has demonstrated that in any number of cases legislation was passed at state or federal level before sufficient exploratory work was undertaken. Professional Development Centers are still a relatively new innovation in many parts of the country including Michigan. We should be able to write better legislation after we are aware of the problem of establishing the pilot centers.

A PROPOSED FUNDING MECHANISM FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CENTERS*

The proposed statute to create a network of Professional Development Centers in this state provides for a program approval system with funding resulting only after each proposal is sanctioned by the State Board of Education. This method is seen by some as another attempt by a central governmental agency taking over the direction and control of a local program activity and reducing still further the local school's autonomy in program determination.

Perhaps there is an alternative method for handling the funding of Professional Development Centers. I would like to propose for consideration a plan which would provide an established amount of money distributed to each center based upon the number of teachers served by each unit. If enough money had been appropriated to provide N dollars per teacher, then a Center serving 1,000 teachers would be given an allotment of $1{,}000 \times N$ to conduct professional growth activities for educational workers in that area during the next school year.

The local Professional Development Center board would then become responsible for the expenditure of these funds. For legal and accounting purposes a local or intermediate school district or university could be designated to handle the actual fiscal record keeping in accordance with approved state procedures for accounting for such funds.

Fiscal prudence calls for more, however, than simply monitoring the expenditures in terms of proper accounting procedures. The legislature would certainly demand that responsibility be fixed to guarantee that the funds were expended for the purposes for which they were intended.

Since the constitution of this state creates the State Board of Education and assigns to it the general supervisory responsibilities of the system of education in Michigan, it seems appropriate for this agency to perform this function. To assist and advise the State Board in fulfilling its responsibilities, a state professional development advisory commission should be established as proposed in guideline 3 . . . of this document. After guidelines are developed which define appropriate inservice development activities, the Board's function would then become one of monitoring the professional development activities utilizing state funds to insure that monies are being spent as intended.

As an example, these guidelines could well direct that state appropriated monies must be used to support programs for a broadly based group of educational workers who are working together to overcome identified learning deficiencies of youngsters.

I cite the foregoing example for illustrative purposes only because I think that it is inappropriate to try to write the guidelines as a part of the statute creating the program. Such questions as released time for teachers, tuition payments for teachers, payments to teachers for participation if outside the

*Draft prepared by Lee Dean for the State Advisory Council on Teacher Preparation and Professional Development, State of Michigan, November 1974.

regular day, and many others are questions which need study in depth [and] should be developed by the State Professional Development Commission for recommendation to the State Board. These in turn might then become a part of the formally adopted administrative rules governing the program.

This administrative structure should provide a needed balance between state and local authority and provide a compromise plan which would be agreeable to both the State Board of Education and the teachers and administrators in local districts.

Appendix B

PROPOSAL FOR A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CENTER*

Goal

The basic goal of the Proposed Education Professional Development Center is to promote changes in the attitudes and behaviors of educational personnel (classroom teacher, administrators, university staff, Intermediate School District staff and State Department of Education personnel) which result in improved learning opportunities for children.

Objectives

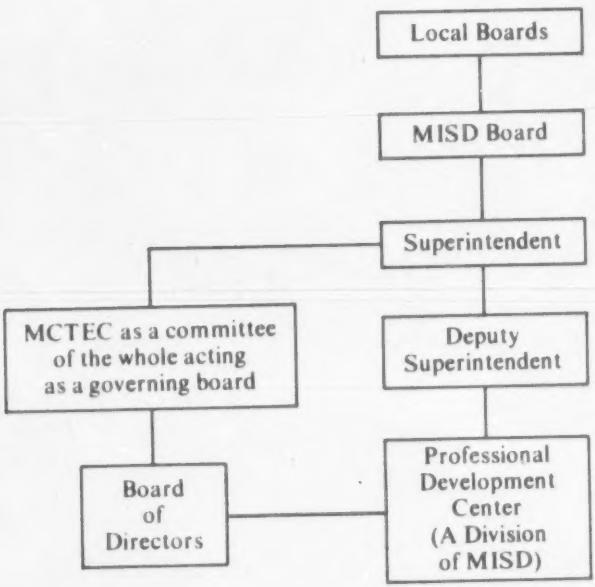
1. To establish an Education Professional Development Center which will be governed by the primary consumers, the local school districts and their professional personnel.
2. To establish operational structures and procedures which will insure that the Center be a cooperative venture of the local school districts, the intermediate school districts and any of the universities involved.
3. To develop a program of service which seeks (1) to assist the client to identify his needs and (2) to assist the client in the development of a response to these needs in a manner fully acceptable to the client.
4. To relate educational resources (LEA, ISD, University and State Department of Education) to the purpose of examining educational problems and needs at the classroom and building level.
5. To provide the learners opportunity to identify and assess their personal need for professional development.
6. To provide a learning environment in which the learner (educational personnel) plays a major role in determining the nature of his/her educational experience.
7. To provide an opportunity for the learner to develop his/her intellectual skills and teaching competencies within the context of their local district curriculum.
8. To develop a mechanism to provide probationary teachers who are working with professional guidance toward continuing certification with opportunities to grow and development through programs of in-service education.
9. To coordinate curriculum development activities, in-service training activities and field-based graduate study activities to promote the professional growth of the teacher.
10. To tie pre-service teacher education into a curriculum improvement and professional development program in an effort to insure that more teachers learn the new methods of teaching for the new curricula in

*Adopted by Macomb County (Michigan) Teacher Education Council, March 1974.

realistic settings where experienced teachers are actually developing new programs.

11. To sponsor operational research in curriculum development and instructional modeling that applies new basic research findings to classroom situations and encourages open-ended inquiry into education problems using divers points of view.
12. To involve as many schools as practical each year as pilot schools (needs assessment, program planning, implementation evaluation, progress evaluation and outcome evaluation) for curriculum development and teacher training schools.
13. To be regularly involved in communication and dissemination activities through state-wide and national "networks" for curriculum development.
14. To promote community understanding of the needs and practices of the local school.
15. To promote community involvement in local curriculum development.

Organizational Structure

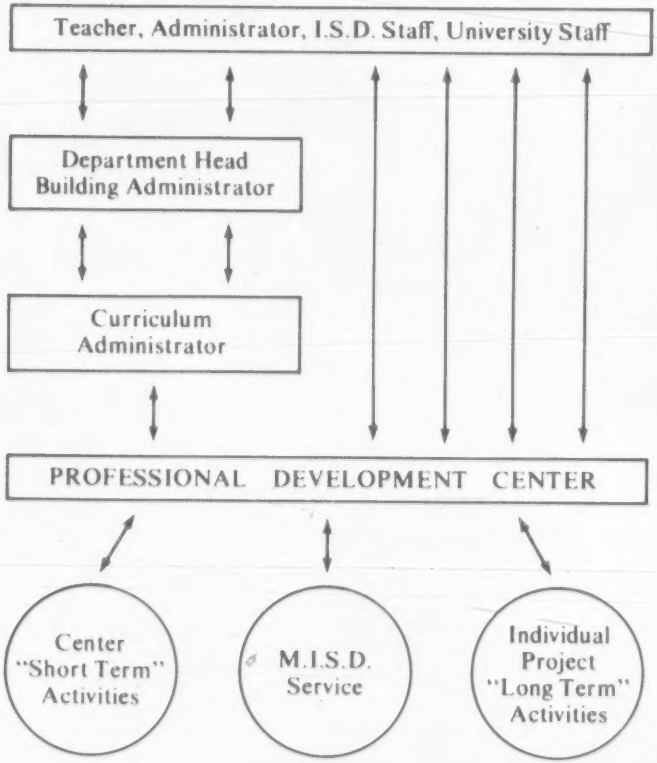

Local Boards
MISD Board
Superintendent
MCTEC as a committee of the whole acting as a governing board
Deputy Superintendent
Board of Directors
Professional Development Center (A Division of MISD)

This structure resembles the structure recommended in the proposal developed by the Michigan Department of Education.

The Board of Directors would be elected by the membership of MCTEC. It would serve to assist the Center administration as an advisory or steering group.

The membership of the Board of Directors would consist of:
six (6) public school representatives
two (2) university representatives
one (1) M.E.A. representative
one (1) A.F.T. representative
one (1) M.I.S.D. representative (Division Head)

Service Request Procedure



About the Editors and Contributors

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